

Childhood Education

The Magazine for Teachers of Young Children

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Next Year—

■ In order that we may understand better what has happened in the past, know more about what is being done today, and increase our perspective of what can be done in the future, next year's issues of *Childhood Education* will present, interpret and attempt to evaluate today's trends in childhood education. Five major trends will receive attention: the trends toward improved school environment, curriculum development, improved instruction, individual guidance of pupils, and home and school relationships.

It is hoped that this orientation in where we are and where we are going will make possible a closer approach to our ideal—education for democratic citizenship.—THE EDITORS.

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Marshall Field School for Children, Chicago

How the Flowers Grow

By GABRIEL SETOUN

This is how the flowers grow:
I have watched them and I know.

First, above the ground is seen
A tiny blade of purest green,
Reaching up and peeping forth
East and west and south and north.

Then it shoots up day by day,
Circling in a curious way
Round a blossom, which it keeps
Warm and cozy while it sleeps.

Then the sunbeams find their way
To the sleeping bud and say,
"We are children of the sun
Sent to wake thee, little one."

Breezes from the west and south
Lay their kisses on its mouth;
Till the petals all are grown,
And the bud's a flower blown.

This is how the flowers grow;
I have watched them and I know.

From *My Poetry Book* by Grace Huffard and
Laura M. Carlisle. John C. Winston Company, 1934

Editorial Comment

Curriculum as Everyday Living

MANY persons, including not a few "educators," seem to look upon the school curriculum as a sacred institution, not to be challenged or despoiled. It might, in their way of thinking, have been handed down to Moses on the Mount or dug up out of the rock strata of geologic times. Children, teachers, housing, equipment and other aspects of the schools may change from age to age but the curriculum—the what-to-teach-in-order-to-educate—should go on unchanged forever.

Some other people, also including "educators," seem to regard change itself, and only change, as sacred. To them, everything old is obsolete and only the new—the newer the better—is entitled to acceptance and respect. There are futurists and fundamentalists in curriculum making as well as in the musical and graphic arts.

But most educators, like most other people, find a place in the curriculum for both the old and the new. This is the safe-and-sane group which thinks and acts between the extremes of the conservatives and the radicals. To this group nothing about the curriculum is sacred—either the old or the new. The old is conserved and respected as the tried product of experience, but it is also subjected to constant scrutiny as to its continued life values. Proposed new material is subjected to the same scrutiny for the same purposes and allowed to replace the old when its superiority is manifest. This group is responsible for keeping the curriculum alive and related to the cultural heritage of man.

It can be said with truth that the educational curriculum is both changeless and changing. Basically, it is changeless; eternally, it seeks to include experiences that will prepare each emerging human being to live happily and effectively in both his inward world of self and his outward world of surrounding circumstance. But these worlds change and hence the curriculum, in its details of content, must change with them.

THESE comments emphasize the changing rather than the changeless aspects of the curriculum—changes in response to the demands of everyday living. Everyday living is life itself. The demands of everyday living are the demands of life. In responding to changes therein, the curriculum is responding to changes in human life in all its depths and fullness.

There is nothing strange nor phenomenal about this conception of life and the curriculum. It is as old as the recorded history of man and schools. In ancient Sparta, life was interpreted harshly and a hard and sullen discipline became the means and object of education. In Athens, a rich and many sided culture found a counterpart in a richly cultural

curriculum in school. Rome "legalized" its course-of-study and its institutions. The medieval church steeped its workers and converts in a philosophy of "other-worldliness" that became an everyday conception more real to its holders than their sense of immediate space and time. The Renaissance and Reformation ushered in new concepts of life and education which revived man's appreciation of the things of the here and now—the one for their own sakes, and the other as of parallel importance with things of the other world; indeed, as part of them.

In our own land, in its comparatively brief history, may be noted the same currency of change in both life and the curriculum. In days when and in places where religion dominated existence, it also dictated the subject-matter that was taught in schools. When civic ability and virtue appeared as essential needs for a new democracy, the schools undertook honestly if somewhat awkwardly to educate for citizenship. When later, with expansion over a new continent and exploitation of its natural resources, material success became the dominant life motive, the course of study reflected the new ideals by emphasizing vocational training and the more superficial elements of culture. Today, in the midst of chaos without, the schools exhibit evidences of a corresponding chaos within.

When one ponders at length the changes that have been thus briefly reviewed, he finds much to suggest that change in the curriculum comes not too slowly but too rapidly. Frequently the changes, while deeply motivated, seem to have been only superficially accomplished. Seldom if ever, it would seem, have the determiners of the curriculum dug down, in either the inward or the outward worlds of life, to the verities that are eternal. Here, perhaps, is an invitation to the making of a basic and lasting change.

In the main, it would seem, human life changes not fundamentally, but rather in those details of existence and adjustment which really constitute a change of clothes. But the man is still the same after he has doffed and donned a change of garments. Our curricula are, and always have been, clothes-conscious. Their changes to fit new circumstances and conditions are naturally inescapable, but these changes are frequently too all-pervasive because at bottom the curriculum has never been properly founded on the changeless qualities and character of man himself.

WHEN education is at last able to divert its major efforts away from the superficial necessities of adjustment to environment to the basic necessities of character-development, there will appear a curriculum which, like the life that it represents, will be changeless in the midst of change.

—B. F. PITTENGER

Dr. Pittenger is Dean of the School of Education, University of Texas.

Dream School

LOUISE G. THOMPSON

THE other night my good friend John R. Hovious and I were returning from an oratorical contest in which we had served as judges. "I wonder what we are purposing to accomplish in the education of young America?" he asked me.

"I wonder," seemed the only answer I could make.

"Last week," he continued, "I visited one of the CCC camps in this state. I noticed the educational facilities provided for the new instructional program: long, plain, frame structures, containing rows of chairs and tables, book shelves along the walls, old fashioned stoves for heating; mess halls, containing necessary equipment for eating, scrupulously clean; dormitories, containing rows of single army cots and only such other equipment as is essential to the business of sleeping and dressing. I could not resist the exclamation, 'This is my ideal college, this university of the woods.'"

Mr. Hovious is a Harvard man. "We have taken the struggles out of education," he declared, "with our million dollar steam-heated, electrified buildings, our atmosphere of luxury and ease, and our ready-made entertainment. There was a time when I had a burning desire to minister to the spiritual and cultural needs of the more remote sections. Today, I frankly confess that I could not take my family out there and endure with those people the toils of life."

I could not get John's words out of my mind. The more I thought about the matter the more fully I became convinced that there is tragedy in what he said.

THE PRESENT SCENE

Life is a struggle from birth. It is the struggle that develops, that causes growth.

Does Miss Thompson indicate the real trends in education in this description of her dream school? Will school houses of the future become school homes? Will expensive equipment become secondary to living wages for teachers? Will teachers of the future assume the role of hostesses rather than that of disciplinarians? Several such dream schools are already in existence. We await their development with interest.

Are we facing the struggle? America spends millions on the education of her youth. Is it worth the cost? If it is true that there are more young people in our schools and in our jails than at any other period in our history, what are we reaping from our sowing of dollars?

In spite of the millions spent for education we still find sections so illiterate that even our European neighbors can boast of no such crudeness. We find other sections blessed with many of the enjoyments of a broader knowledge of the three R's, and yet, so far as community consciousness is concerned, they are absolutely asleep; so far as the cultural and spiritual values of life are concerned, they have never been awakened.

Our American educational curriculum has been planned to fit the average man. Who is he? America attempts to give every child an average education according to an educational formula planned to fit the greatest number. What does she really accomplish?

Educators recognize that most of the current methods used in the education of youth are too formal, too abstract, and too disconnected from life. We are living in a complex age of invention and discovery. Our schools should disregard their formalism and work to develop the individuality of the boy and girl.

You say that this is no new philosophy? I agree with you, but what about our practice of the philosophy? We still guard our traditional school curriculum with jealous care. We require the girls to study algebra in the hope that they may make better biscuits. We require formal and rigid procedures and methods in the public schools that make it impossible for the creative artist or the literary or scientific genius to endure public school training. There is point to this argument. It is possible that our traditional school methods may harm rather than foster an effective program of growth and development for our youth.

Educators agree that our big opportunity lies in providing stimulation, encouragement, information and coordination for the various members of a social group. Yet, our efforts have all been to transplant students out of their own social groups and into an artificial environment. Consolidation has not solved the problem of rural education. It has simply brought confusion and strife and hundreds of lesser problems. Bus transportation has proved hazardous, and attendance problems have multiplied. Our colleges buy their students. They coddle them and take the "kick" out on the football field. The result is, the transplanted organism becomes adapted to its artificial environment. Never again can it thrive in its original field. And yet, we have a wonderful educational system in America, a wonderful educational system!

THE DREAM SCHOOL

My "Dream School" does not propose to cure all our educational ills. It does not attempt widespread educational reform, or set up a new system of education from cradle to college. It is simply a vision of possibility—the possibility of reaching American youth, and through a program of inspiration, enlightenment, and guidance, tying him into his own social, civic and cultural unit in such a way that he shall contribute

his own best effort along the line best suited to his individual personality, and thus create a happy, contented, and glorified America.

My "Dream School" is not a university, not a college, not a high school. It is simply a rural community school. There may be only one teacher, and there may be less than twenty students, but there is surely more than one room.

The school building is a dwelling house. It is as commodious and as comfortable as the community is capable of providing. The living room is as well furnished as the living room in the best home in the community, and the book cases by the fireplace are well filled with material of value in every field of human endeavor. The dining room is in excellent taste and furnished practically. The kitchen is equipped with the kind of stoves and other furnishings that the girls will use in their homes. There are bedrooms, bathrooms, and other rooms needful for home making. There are barns; out-houses for tools, shop work and other masculine activities, and there is a small farm surrounding it all. This, then, is the school plant.

If the boys must cut and bring in wood at home, they cut and bring in wood at school. If the girls must make a wood fire to cook at home, they learn how to make a better fire at school. They do not turn on the gas. So much for the material environment in which these young Americans are to face the struggle of life.

THE TEACHER

Now, let us consider the teacher in the "Dream School." She marks the success or the failure of the work. She is a young woman of refinement, culture, and gracious personality, a charming hostess in her school home. She has a heart full of kindness and true human sympathy and understanding. She is tactful and able to cope with almost any situation. Her originality inspires creative effort. Her sternness, tempered by human understanding, demands respect. She

sees the humor in drab monotony and fires the souls of her students with her ardent love of life.

She knows her people. She understands local conditions, socially, industrially, religiously, and she is truly in sympathy with her community's desire for development. Her discipline is excellent. It is not the rigid, stern discipline of the old school, the kind that demanded that pupils sit without speaking (or thinking) throughout the long school day. It is discipline of an entirely different quality, the discipline that encourages industry, that secures cooperation, and that demands loyalty and obedience.

There are times when five different rooms are fairly buzzing with the noise of orderly work and the teacher is present in each room only a fraction of the work period. And yet, the vandalism of the present-day public school does not occur. Her pupils have learned the value of obedience, of respect for rightful authority, and they have learned to follow directions to the best of their several abilities. They are depended upon to accomplish something; their word is honored; they are trusted to be where duty calls them at the time appointed.

You say that this would demand a highly trained specialist to work out in a section where beginning teachers are now used at very small salaries? Yes, but I am only dreaming. I'd want my dream teacher to receive a living wage.

THE BOYS AND GIRLS

What are the boys and girls in this dream school going to learn? Well, surely they will not be required to give ten minutes to spelling, twenty-five minutes to arithmetic, fifteen minutes to reading, twenty-five minutes to geography and history, and thirty minutes to English, for six or eight hours each day. It is needless to say that the traditional curriculum cannot work in such a school.

All human behavior is rooted in the emotions, and instincts are at the base of human

emotions. This school interests itself in human behavior. It must plan its curriculum to appeal to the child through all channels of experience—visual, auditory, manipulative. It must provide for individual instruction, individual development, and make use of each child's easiest way of learning. Success along some line, in some field of endeavor, is absolutely essential to happiness.

BOOKS AND THINGS

There are only four text books used in this dream school and they are guide books, not necessarily libraries of fact. There is a guide to language experience—English, reading, writing and spelling; a guide to number experience—practical, business; a guide to social experience—geography, history, civics, arts, sciences, and a guide to personal experiences—ethical, cultural, and religious. These books suggest activities, guide in the working out of problems, provide for the cooperative effort of all the boys and girls, and admit of individual progress, creative effort, and constructive planning.

The questions with the child at the end of the month are not, "Did I make A?" or "Did I get by?" but, "How much have I learned?" "How much have I done toward the goal I have set?"

At the end of the year it is not, "Did I get promoted?" but, "How much progress have I made?"

Then you ask, "Are there no grades in this dream school?"

There are no grades as we know them in our public schools. Why should Fred do only about half of what he is capable of doing and torment his teacher and the class the rest of the day, simply because he has a good mind? Why should he make only one grade in a year? Why should poor little Mary be made so self-conscious and given such an inferiority complex because it takes her more than one year to learn to read? Both of these children under the traditional scheme will grow up to be social misfits when they should

be happy to contribute their respective parts to successful group life.

Right habits, ideals, attitudes—these are the things educators talk about. That they are the factors that contribute to happy, successful living, every one will agree. My dream school puts the establishment of right habits, ideals and attitudes above the acquiring of facts, the gaining of skills, the making of grades or receiving of A's or degrees.

A PROGNOSIS

When such schools are the center of activity in every community in rural America;

when their influence is felt by every boy and girl, man and woman from six to sixty in these communities; then Education will find the key to reorganization of the high school and the college in America, for there will be high school and college timber in America—rugged, strong hearted, determined students who will follow through to victory any task to which they set their minds.

But, you ask, who would champion such an educational return to nature? Who would dare to oppose our present well-ordered system? I do not know. If I were not dreaming, I should think you might.



The Kindergarten

THE good life, at which education aims, is, in scriptural terms, a seventy-year journey; and the masters of educational thought in all ages are unanimous in saying that the early portion of the journey is the most important of it. Like waters at the sources of rivers, characters during this early period may easily be turned into channels that lie far removed from each other; but after they have proceeded for some distance, the opportunity is lost.

IN THE education of the child, the four years preceding the usual kindergarten age are doubtless the most important ones of all. And for the same reasons, the two kindergarten years are undoubtedly more potent for education than any equal subsequent period. Let the kindergarten help the children to two years of a many-sided living that is abundant, wholesome and fruitful, and its educational worth to the children will be greater than any two years of high school or college.—FRANKLIN BOBBITT, from his message to the Froebel Centennial celebration in Chicago, April, 1937.

Curriculum Maker— Know Your Child

ARTHUR T. JERSILD

AS A CHILD develops from month to month and from year to year, two forces are at work; he is growing and he is learning. Actually, learning and growth are interdependent; it is not possible to isolate one from the other in "pure" form. Yet for practical purposes, we can in some respects consider them separately.

In everyday speech we continually make such a separation. We say, for example, that a child has *grown* three inches since we saw him last, and we note also that he has *learned* to recite "Jack and Jill." But if we looked into the matter of "Jack and Jill" we would also find that back of this memory work there has been "growth." We would find that the four-year-old who now recites the verse could not have learned to do so at the age of nine months. At that time he could scarcely speak a word. Since then, he has not only learned to talk, but has also memorized several lines of verse. The words he uses are the result of learning, but his ability to learn the words is due in part to growth.

This illustration rather over-simplifies the roles of learning and of growth, but it can be seen at once that it involves sweeping implications for the education of children, especially if we carry it further. At nine months the child could not learn the verse no matter how hard he or his mother might have tried. At twenty-four months he might have been able to do so, but it would have required a great many repetitions and skillful management on his mother's part. At three years, he could have learned the verse much more readily, and at four years it was still easier for him to memorize it. Perhaps if he had waited until a still later age, he could

This article by Dr. Jersild of Teachers College, Columbia University, is particularly timely because of the wide-spread interest today in curriculum making and revision. He points out the importance of adjusting the curriculum to the maturity of the child, describes what is meant by maturity and states that before a satisfactory curriculum can be developed we must know the skills, habits and accomplishments a child needs to acquire and when to stress their development.

have recited the verse after hearing it just once or twice.

ADJUSTING THE CURRICULUM TO THE CHILD'S MATURITY

From the moment of birth there are countless activities both at home and at school that might be examined from the point of view of ability to learn in relation to maturity, much as we have examined the memorizing of "Jack and Jill." At school, a standard course of study has been one of the most strongly intrenched traditions in education. For generations, certain subjects, and certain standards of achievement in these subjects, have been assigned to each grade. It has been the job of the teacher to fit the child to these requirements. As a rule, this job has received more attention than has the job of fitting the requirements to the child.

At home, likewise, there have been traditional requirements, at different age levels, in such matters as the establishment of habits of eating, toileting, dressing, and other elements of self-help. Just as in the memorizing of "Jack and Jill," it is possible that many of these assignments could be mastered with much less expense of time and effort if

they were postponed to a later stage of growth. Again, it is possible that there are many activities and skills which have not been conventional requirements but which might appropriately be introduced early in the child's life.

By way of further illustration, consider the matter of arithmetic. Number work, graded to higher and higher levels of difficulty, has become almost a religious rite in the elementary school. In many schools, sometime during the fourth grade every child is required to learn long division. Even if they have been regularly promoted from year to year, a great number of these children must labor very hard to master long division at this stage of growth, and some of them will fail. Yet, many of these same children would be able to master this process with ease if it were postponed for a year or more. To be sure, the skill of the teacher also plays a part in the child's success or failure. But the fact remains that a performance that is time-consuming and disheartening at one age level may be mastered by the child with less time and effort when he is a bit more mature.

A refreshing experiment in arithmetic, by L. P. Benezet in the schools of Manchester, New Hampshire, supports this point. Mr. Benezet postponed until the sixth grade many of the formal operations in arithmetic which traditionally had been introduced in earlier grades. He found that pupils at this level were soon able to master the processes which other children had struggled with for several years in the lower grades. In the meantime, the children in the experiment, relieved of conventional requirements in arithmetic in the earlier grades, had progressed further along other lines.

Obviously, this problem of adjusting the curriculum to the child's maturity is not as simple as it has been made to sound. The problem is complicated by the effect of different methods of teaching, and by the fact

that there are large individual differences among children. The greatest handicap in dealing with the problem is a lack of systematic information. From such information as is at hand, the generalization may be made that there undoubtedly are some activities now commonly emphasized at various age levels that might better be postponed until a later time; also, there are undoubtedly many activities which are now assigned to later years that might better be introduced at an earlier time; further, there undoubtedly are many activities not now included at all in the conventional curriculum that might well be adopted.

What is needed is a two-fold approach to the problem. First, we need some kind of a tentative inventory of the skills, habits and accomplishments that a child needs to acquire, in the interests of his own welfare and the comfort of others, sometime during his childhood career. Second, we need further study to determine what is the most strategic time in the child's developmental career to stress the various items in this inventory.

Such information as we have that bears on the subject of learning in relation to maturity has come mainly from the study of young children, and much of the research has been narrow in scope and limited in time. Many of the findings that have emerged are suggestive, however, and a review of some of these findings follows.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Interesting findings have been obtained in studies of the development of the ability to walk. If a child is left free to move as he pleases, there are certain sequences and stages which eventuate in the ability to walk alone. It has been found that progress from one stage of locomotion to the next does not seem to be influenced much by special "coaching." A child whose mother urges, lures, and tries to help him apparently will not stand on his own feet earlier than would

have been the case if he had been left pretty much alone.

In a study by Arnold Gesell of the development of climbing, it was found that one twin who had received no special encouragement soon reached the level of performance of a twin who had received "training" during several preceding weeks. It was also observed that the effects of training in climbing were relative to the child's stage of growth: while the child was in the creeping stage, the climbing she was trained to do was grafted on to the creeping pattern.

These twins were later studied by L. C. Strayer from the point of view of language development. For several weeks, at a time when the children were at the point of talking, one twin was kept in a non-verbal environment while the other was talked to and coached in the use of words. Later, when the untrained twin was given a chance, she began rapidly to make up the difference between the size of her own vocabulary and that of her sister. The results in studies of this kind would undoubtedly be different if training on the one hand, and lack of stimulation on the other, were continued for a longer period of time. But the fact still remains that a few weeks of added maturity made for more rapid progress in learning. An interesting item in this study was the fact that the control twin remained inferior, for a time, to her sister in the pronunciation of words even though the increase in her vocabulary was quite rapid.

Other studies in this field indicate that certain skills may be "ripe" for training at a certain stage of growth while other skills are not. In a study by the writer, patterned on earlier research by Arthur I. Gates and Arnold Gesell, children of preschool age took part in a number of experiments. One performance was the singing of tones and intervals. After some months of training in singing, the children who had this experience far surpassed the control subjects.

When tests were made at the end of the following summer, the children who had received training were still quite superior to untrained children, who originally were similar to them in ability.

In several other performances, on the other hand, the children who received training did not make substantial gains. One of these performances consisted in keeping time in walking, and in keeping time with the hands, while music was being played. The experimental subjects did not become significantly more accurate than the control subjects who were tested only at the end-points of the investigation. Here was a case in which one skill improved with training at a certain age and another did not.

In the study of "Johnny and Jimmy" by Myrtle McGraw it was found that Johnny could learn to roller-skate almost as soon as he was able to talk. On the other hand, it was not until many months later that he was able to ride a tricycle. In his case, roller-skating was more susceptible to training at an early age than was tricycling.

In this brief review, it is not possible to go into all the incidental reservations and questions that arise in connection with the experiments just cited. In actual life, training and experience are seldom an all-or-none matter. Whether a child receives special opportunities or not, he is likely to have many experiences in his normal, daily life that overlap with the activities that might be singled out for the study of effects of special training. But the practical problem would still remain as to whether and when special emphasis should be given to the training of a particular activity at home or in the school. Obviously, this does not imply that no skill should be taught the child until he has reached an optimum degree of readiness. Such findings as are available at the present time do little more than show that the problem is important from a practical point of view and to show further that a good deal

of research is necessary to determine when a given activity may most profitably be cultivated.

It is not implied here that the training of children at home and the course of study at school have been planned in complete disregard of the changing capacities of the growing child. Customs and standards in the education of children may be faulty in many respects, yet they are, by and large, an outgrowth of common sense and practicality. If the child's curriculum from birth (when his training begins) to adult years were tested and revised in terms of his readiness for various activities at different levels of growth, a great number of items of this curriculum would, no doubt, remain substantially unchanged. There would still be room, however, for substantial revisions.

RECOGNITION OF SKILLS AND ABILITIES

In nursery school and kindergarten education, one sees a certain amount of adjustment of the curriculum to the child's development. It is realized, for example, that gross muscular coordination develops earlier than fine muscular coordination, and the materials provided for children are adapted to this fact. There is a tacit recognition, also, of the fact that a young child's attention span and his memory span are limited, and that he has a limited capacity for understanding complicated directions or observing complex rules. In keeping with this, preschool children are usually allowed a good deal of freedom, and the projects provided for them usually do not require prolonged periods of concentration. Even so, however, the writer is convinced that the usual preschool curriculum would be made more stimulating and beneficial to the child if teachers were more consciously aware of the large range of skills and habits which children of this age are able to acquire. Such awareness would also mean that the teachers would take a more active and deliberate part in directing

the activities of the child into productive channels.

In almost any kindergarten or nursery school, one can see children who are "fringers," who take no part in many of the activities that are available, who are deficient in many of the skills which their more active peers have acquired, who are inept in their social techniques and remain so month after month and even season after season. If one but watches children at the jungle gym or the teeter-totter, for example, one can find evidence on this score. Moreover, when one sees that many parts of the little world of the nursery school are thus closed to individual children, it does not necessarily follow that these children are barred by reason of lack of potential ability.

The progress which a seemingly incompetent child can make with suitable encouragement and help is sometimes little less than amazing. Frequently, with subtle help, he can be led to acquire skill in walking up inclined boards, climbing to the top of boxes, keeping his balance on jouncing boards, holding his own on the teeter-totter, climbing to the top of the jungle gym. By very virtue of mastery of such simple skills, his social adjustments are also improved for he now can join his peers in many activities, while before he was left behind.

In the home, a better understanding of the child's level of maturity would undoubtedly help to forestall many "behavior problems." Frequently, tantrums and resistant behavior develop not because the child is innately perverse, but because the demands made upon him are not scaled to his ability. For example, when a child is just learning to talk, parents sometimes, in their delight over this development, urge him to repeat words he has spoken before and to learn new ones. They do not realize that his powers of concentration are limited, that his interest span is short, that his energies soon flag. Where an adult can mobilize his inter-

ests and energies for a period of hours, a child's energies are likely to wane after a few minutes. When, therefore, his parents, even in a spirit of play, continue to urge him on, they are imposing upon him a task that is too difficult. And so at this stage of growth he may become irritable and resentful, just as an ungifted child in the fourth grade may grow resentful as he struggles with a difficult problem in long division.

RECOGNITION OF MOTIVES AND DIFFICULTIES

One incidental effect of an effort by teachers to adjust education to the development of the child would be an increasing recognition of the child's motives and private difficulties. Timidity and shyness, on the one hand, and rebellious and aggressive behavior, on the other, would be seen not as isolated forms of perversity but as behavior growing out of the child's total life pattern. Such signs of maladjustment would stimulate the teachers to look for clues regarding the child's problems at home and school. Often teachers would find that a child's problems are closely related to his skills, and frequently she would discover that by helping to increase his competence and skill in dealing with the practical, everyday details of classroom and playground activities, she would thereby accomplish much toward solving the child's emotional problems.

Another incidental result of greater concern for the characteristics of the growing child would be an increasing regard for his imaginative life and of the manner in which

his imaginative tendencies can be integrated with educational purposes.

Another aspect of mental growth which should receive more attention is children's concepts and reasoning ability. In recent years, there has been much stress on the importance of social studies in the elementary school. This stress is wholesome in its purposes, but in the opinion of the writer, the practical proposals for putting it into effect are often quite unrealistic. Research studies with elementary and high school pupils indicate that their social and economic concepts are quite limited when compared with those of educated adults. The reason for this may be poor teaching and preparation rather than lack of mental capacity, but whatever the reason may be, more knowledge of the child would bring educational purposes closer to reality. One result of a better knowledge of children at the preschool level and in early school grades would be a diminished emphasis on intellectual propaganda and more stress on the cultivation of attitudes and the simple, homely habits of courtesy and social poise.

This discussion points out only a few aspects of the problems of education in relation to the maturity of the child. In the general literature of child development there is much additional material bearing indirectly on these problems. It should be made available for analysis, interpretation and evaluation. Even though some pertinent information is available, the most important need that still remains is further study of children themselves, unhampered by educational isms or stereotyped psychological methods.

Individuality

On the first day of school
They pour into their seats,
Little nonentities,
All frowsy, all the same,

Like so much batter in cake rings.
Then they begin to rise,
Each reveals a separate sweetness
And a worth all his own.

Making Use of the Special Teacher

MARY C. WILSON

PLEASE stop working, third graders, and put your materials away promptly. There are only three minutes left and everything must be set in order," requested the art teacher.

Almost daily this admonition is given to pupils by special teachers in elementary schools throughout the country. Why is it necessary for the work to stop and for all materials to be cleared away in three minutes? The art period is scheduled from ten o'clock until ten-thirty, the next teacher is due for a reading or social studies class, and the art teacher is scheduled for another class at ten-thirty, thus she is compelled to close the period without delay.

The art teacher does not suffer alone from scheduled regimentation. Frequently the elementary science teacher refrains from excursions which would be of significant worth to the pupils because her schedule will not permit the time necessary for such trips. Innumerable examples of similar restrictions placed on special teachers might be cited.

CONCERNING THE SPECIAL TEACHER

Who is the specialist in the elementary school? How can the work of the specialist be carried on without a formal schedule? How may the specialist in the elementary school be utilized to better advantage? These questions will be considered briefly so that each reader may consider his own situation in relation to the use made of specialists, and that he may re-evaluate his own situation in relation to this problem.

First, who is the specialist in the elementary school? Tradition would dictate that the specialists be limited to the music, art, physical education, home economics, library, science, school nurse, industrial arts, speech, and other teachers of special fields of subject

"Making Use of the Special Teacher" represents the composite thinking of a group of college students interested in the problems of the specialist in elementary education. Miss Wilson acted as chairman for the discussions and prepared this account. Who is the specialist, how can she work without a formal schedule, and how can her contributions be utilized more adequately are the questions discussed and illustrated by these students.

matter. These are indeed specialists and are so considered in all elementary school systems which are fortunate enough to afford them.

However, there are many other specialists or experts available to elementary school children. Available to every school are parents and other citizens of the community whose assistance and services might be obtained to aid in the solution of specific problems. Today one's view of the specialist should be extended to include all those persons in a school community who can render expert assistance in some field of knowledge.

Second, how can the work of the specialist be pursued without a formal schedule? The simplest plan for the administrator is to formulate a definite schedule at the beginning of the school year. However, such procedure disregards the numerous needs essential to various groups which arise from time to time as the school year advances. In some large school systems it has seemed wise to plan a schedule which provides that the time of the specialists be made available to everyone. Provision for some degree of flexibility within such an arrangement is possible.

There are special teachers in the more progressive schools who are willing to make constant adjustments from week to week and

from day to day as pertinent needs for their services arise. There are those who provide a time when children from various groups or classes with like interests may work together in their studios and laboratories. Some special teachers keep an after school office hour when children, teachers, and parents may consult with them and obtain materials needed for work in their field. Special teachers, released from formal schedules, may occasionally be able to accompany classes on excursions or attend class discussions where they have an opportunity both to give and receive invaluable help.

Too frequently the special teacher has no conception of the activities and experiences of the children apart from her field of interest and from her particular period. Therefore, she cannot contribute fully to a balanced day of good living for every child. Greater flexibility in the daily program would tend to eliminate the dreariness and lassitude often created by scheduled classes which interrupt vital activities of the children. Release from a regimented schedule would not only permit periods to occur at a more propitious time, but it would also allow periods of sufficient length that children might complete work more satisfactorily.

Third, how may the specialist in the elementary school be utilized more adequately? This question was partially discussed in the above paragraph. A school must be sure it is utilizing the available abilities of the children, home-room teachers, special teachers, administrators, parents, and other citizens. The potential contributions of children have sometimes been completely overlooked in relation to the solution of problems requiring special knowledge. It is also well to consider of prime importance the contributions of special teachers, other than those made while they are in the actual classrooms.

When the specialist has assisted in directing teachers, when she has served as a consultant, when she has enriched the total

school program through bringing to it the possibilities of her particular field of special knowledge, then, indeed, may we say that the specialist is functioning more adequately in modern education. Then, also, may we say that the classroom is taking into better account the accidental, the unpredictable, and the changing issues of life.

THE WORK OF THE SPECIAL TEACHER

Some members of the Elementary Major Class at Teachers College, Columbia University, have been interested in the problem of more adequate use of special teachers in the elementary school. These students have taught in different types of schools located in various parts of the country. In order to share experiences, in order to get a sampling of what is being done at present, and in order to obtain a point for departure in considering needed changes, these students have stated briefly some predominant characteristics of the work of the specialists in their schools.

TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

Cooperation between specialist and home-room teacher.—At the time when the specialist is helping the children on particular problems in art, physical education, or music, we feel it is advisable for the home-room teacher to remain with her group so that she may furnish the special teacher an understanding of the background the children have had and in turn benefit from the pupils' present experiences. It is to be deplored when duties are assigned the home-room teacher which make it necessary for her to be away from the group. Her contribution at the time the special teacher is present is invaluable.

Cooperation between specialist and other teachers.—Too often supervisors and teaching specialists overlook cooperation in their planning. Cooperative or mutual planning is required to bring about results satisfactory to all. Instead of daily or even weekly planning, there must be a broader vision involved. In our school, when the music supervisor, for example, wishes to have more time for some special problem, the other special teachers and home-room teachers are consulted, and a workable plan is adopted. Arrangements are made to give the music instructor part of the time scheduled for other

classes, then when her special work has been completed, the other teachers are given the privilege of using the regular music periods for their work in order to regain the time which they had willingly relinquished. We feel that the children also benefit by a rest from music after the concentrated demands made on them in preparing and executing a creditable festival.

Specialists used as consultants.—At present it is the policy of our administration to hold the classroom teacher responsible for guiding the children in her group in all their activities.

The science, art, health, physical education, and speech instructors may be called in as consultants. At times they may even feel it wise to teach. This means much more responsibility for the room teacher, but it gives her the opportunity to change her program as the need arises and to center all her work around the particular interest of her group.

Choice of activity period.—In our campus elementary school we have organized vertical interest groups in what we call our club program. There are about two hundred children from the fourth through the eighth grades. We have a two-fold motive: to give opportunity for the promotion and development of voluntary interests and skills of the children, and to provide opportunity for the student teachers to have experience in serving as sponsors of such groups.

LABORATORY SCHOOL

Cooperation and flexibility obtained within a formal set-up.—This school has a definite schedule but permits flexibility, and as a result one finds an example of social living and co-operation among both teachers and pupils. For example, the music teacher plans her work according to the schedule, but frequently alters her program, in order to be of assistance to some group working on problems relative to music that arise in connection with some center of interest. On the other hand, when an operetta is to be presented, the teacher in English aids with the dramatic interpretation, the physical education instructor assists with the dancing, and other teachers feel that regardless of who initiates the activity, it is a part of the work of the entire school. Each one feels directly or indirectly responsible for its success.

STATE RURAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

Saving problems for consultants.—In this particular school system the administration has

provided that the special teachers must serve a group of schools. As the emerging activities of the children require the help and advice of art teacher, music teacher, mother, and other experts, their special problems are listed and are saved until such time as the expert is present to help. With what joy the special teacher is welcomed by these children who are so anxious for help.

TWO-ROOM RURAL SCHOOL

Use of the community specialist.—The following specialists available among the citizens were called upon to help in one rural school:

A naturalist and his assistants came to the school to show movies, give lectures, and to take children on trips when they were studying such subjects as birds, animals, trees, insects, geology, glaciers, and flowers.

The community doctor and dentist helped in giving the annual physical examinations and in giving guidance when it was needed to prevent contagious diseases. Through this means a real study of underweight children was carried on and correction was made through rest classes and lunch periods.

Through the financial assistance of the P.T.A., boxing was taught to the boys by a former champion who was living in the neighborhood.

Although we were required by law to have twenty minutes a day for physical education we began school an hour earlier in the morning, thus making it possible to dismiss the children at two o'clock so they might take advantage of free lessons in skiing given by a world champion from Austria.

Music appreciation was made available to the children through the means of national broadcasts over the radio.

World travellers and parents who had visited other countries were often invited into the school to show pictures and to talk with the children.

LARGE COMMUNITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

Development of individuality through a flexible program.—The realization that art could and should function more effectively in the lives of the children of our elementary school caused us to consider this problem. A plan was devised whereby the regular half-hour or forty minute period was abandoned and in its place a procedure adopted which allowed classes to make appointments in advance with the art teacher. This enabled her to go to a group

[May

when she was needed, with the privilege of remaining with that group as long as necessary.

The abilities and interests of individuals were recorded, the object being to permit individuals to carry out the ideas and plans in which they were interested. A certain group of children chose to make the classroom a more beautiful and pleasant place in which to live. The art teacher was invited to consider this problem with them. Many activities evolved during its solution which bore fruitful results in the school and homes.

SUBURBAN COMMUNITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

Using home-room teachers as specialists.—The superintendent in this school system arranges to have in each school a home-room teacher who has a hobby and whose background is rich in some particular field of knowledge. Music, art, physical education, science, geography, and photography are among the special interests. The teachers act as consultants in their fields of interest for the entire school. They keep office hours after school and maintain a workroom and bureau of materials for the use of others. In such manner children, teachers, and parents benefit from expert guidance.

LARGE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

Provision for more complete living.—There is no Wednesday afternoon session in this particular school. The parents, children, teachers, and administrators feel this time should be reserved for the children, in order that they may keep dental appointments, obtain physical examinations, engage in free play, rest, receive special instruction in music, dancing, art, horse-back riding, or engage in some other activity which makes for more satisfactory and complete living of the individual pupils.

INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL IN A LARGE SYSTEM

Utilizing special abilities and resources available in the community.—Members of the community helped definitely to enrich the experiences of the pupils in my class. Among those who assisted us were a Danish bread boy, a professor from Hungary, some mothers, a grocery clerk, a sailor who had been to Japan, an aviator, a banker, members of the garden club, a judge of the Juvenile Court, and a missionary from China.

Resources of the community such as the newspaper office, a dairy, vegetable and flower

gardens, and other schools facilitated the solution of problems in special fields of interest and were also utilized to enrich the experiences of the children.

LARGE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

Special teachers and special supervisors.—This system has many special teachers with directors in each department. There are music, art, writing, physical education, industrial art, and home economic departments connected with the work in the elementary schools. The directors are responsible for the curriculum and teaching in their own departments. The special teachers work in various schools, the time spent depending upon the size of the school.

A CITY SCHOOL

Out-of-school service of the specialists.—The nature study teacher of our school frequently sets a time and place when she will meet those interested in observing and learning more about the stars. At the appointed time and place a few children, teachers and parents may be found assembled. Such a situation demonstrates the use of extracurricular time by the specialist, and the utilization of material available to every school.

Change is inevitable and conscious changes are being effected throughout the country to facilitate the work of specialists in the modern elementary school. No portion of the curriculum lends itself more adequately to practicing the philosophy of the new school than that of the specialist. No portion of the curriculum offers greater opportunities for challenging the potential, creative abilities of the children than the numerous rich and varied fields where specialists are needed for guidance. Yet strangely enough, the special teachers have been delegated to the most rigid and formal schedules found in elementary school situations. Possible values, decided advantages, and grave dangers are obvious to those considering modifications of present practices. Only through careful group planning and thoughtful consideration of resultant consequences will it be possible to realize the greatest values from specialists in the elementary school.

Trends in the Three R's

A Symposium

DESIRABLE TRENDS IN THE TEACHING OF READING

WILLIAM S. GRAY

THE last ten years form a notable period in the history of reading. "As a result of the stimulus provided by such publications as the *Report of the National Committee on Reading*, the place of reading in the curriculum has greatly expanded and the content and methods of teaching pupils to read have improved rapidly. Of even greater importance is the fact that reading has acquired broader relationships in both child and adult life. With increasing frequency the fact has been emphasized that reading must provide more largely in the future than in the past for promoting clear understanding, developing habits of good thinking, stimulating broad interests, cultivating appreciations, and establishing stable personalities. Furthermore, the results of scientific studies have given us a clearer understanding of the nature of reading and of the basic processes involved."¹

The foregoing statement summarizes important general trends in reading during recent years. The Committee which prepared it also identified significant facts and principles that should be considered in any effort to improve instruction in reading in the immediate future. They will be summarized briefly in the paragraphs that follow because they include the most valuable suggestions available at present concerning desirable trends and needed developments in the field of reading.

1. The broad objectives of reading which were emphasized in the Report of the National

What are the trends today in the teaching of reading, handwriting and arithmetic? William S. Gray and Frank N. Freeman of the University of Chicago, and William A. Brownell, Duke University, have prepared this symposium.

Committee on Reading in 1925 have changed but little during recent years. On the other hand, various specific aims assume new meaning and importance in the light of contemporary social and educational developments. "Examples of such aims are to broaden the vision of readers, to make their lives richer and more meaningful, and to enable them to meet the practical needs of life more effectively; to develop social understanding and the ability to use reading in the intelligent search for truth; to promote a broad common culture and a growing appreciation of the finer elements in American life; and to stimulate wholesome interests in reading."²

2. If the foregoing aims are to be achieved more fully in the future than in the past, it is essential that children and young people acquire greater independence and efficiency in reading. "This implies greater accuracy in recognition and comprehension than prevails today, greater clarity in interpretation, increased efficiency in the use of the content of what is read, wider familiarity with the sources and values of reading material, and more critical attitudes and greater discrimination and skill in reading activities." In promoting satisfactory progress, every effort should be made to avoid the use of formal procedures and activities that serve no genuine purpose. On the other hand, opportunities should be provided regularly for learners to work intelligently with books in achieving worthwhile and varied purposes.

3. In order to promote rapid growth in habits of fluent intelligent reading, the need is urgent for abundant materials that can be read with ease and understanding by pupils at various levels of advancement. This implies noteworthy improvement in reading materials relating to the

¹ The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report. *National Society for the Study of Education. Thirty-sixth Yearbook. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1937, Part I, p. 5.*

² This quotation and those in succeeding paragraphs have been taken from pages 18 to 21 of *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report, Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 1937.*



Kindergarten-Primary Department, New Orleans Public Schools

One of the old-timers introducing the new-comer to a picture book on the reading table.

various curriculum fields for pupils of different levels of ability. The rapid progress made in this connection during recent years should be greatly accelerated in the future. The importance of an abundance of interesting attractive reading material in each room adapted to the varying levels of reading ability represented cannot be over-emphasized.

4. Whereas reading was formerly organized as an independent activity in the daily schedule, it is conceived increasingly of late as a component part of a unified program. Furthermore, it is recognized as a phase of child development rather than an end in itself. In harmony with this principle, the types of growth stimulated at each level should be adjusted regularly to the learner's needs, interests, and stage of development. This trend is admirably illustrated in efforts to promote reading readiness. Instead, however, of indicating merely that a pupil is ready for reading, the concept of readiness is applied increasingly today to each of the stages

of development through which pupils pass in acquiring mature reading habits. This trend emphasizes the importance of "continuous study of the learner's progress and of steps to promote readiness for greater achievement in reading at successive levels of development from the kindergarten to the university."

5. Questions have been raised frequently of late concerning the need for specific periods devoted to systematic guidance in reading. The assumption lying back of such questions is that all the guidance that is needed can be provided in connection with problems, projects or activities in which pupils "read to learn." The Committee which prepared the recent report on reading recommended that until further evidence develops specific periods for carefully planned guidance in reading should be provided not only in elementary schools but also in secondary schools and colleges as well. "As here conceived, the major purposes of guidance are to insure right initial learnings, to promote the sequential

development of basic reading habits, to increase efficiency in applying reading to study situations that are common to various curricular fields, to prepare pupils for higher attainments at successive levels of progress, to prevent the development of wrong attitudes and inefficient habits, and to provide needed corrective and remedial training."

6. Although certain periods are retained for systematic instruction in reading, no less importance is attached to guidance in reading in the various curriculum fields. In fact, the teacher of every subject or field is recognized increasingly as a teacher of reading in the sense "that he stimulates and directs the experiences of pupils and promotes increased efficiency in the various activities required. In the judgment of the Committee, the greatest opportunity for progress in teaching reading during the next decade lies in an intelligent attack on reading problems that arise in the content fields." Even in the earliest grades teachers should not only provide wide opportunities for purposeful reading in the various curriculum fields but should also supervise and direct such activities so as to insure right habits and maximum progress on the part of each pupil.

7. As implied by the foregoing statements, vigorous effort should be made to insure a stimulating purpose or a motivating drive on the part of each pupil in all required reading activities. The advantage of interesting, challenging reading has been clearly established experimentally. "The materials used should be intriguing to those taught. Furthermore, they should be truthful, wholesome and enlightening; the content should be worthwhile in itself in terms of the pleasure or information contributed; and the materials should be so selected and prepared that they promote continuous growth in specific phases of reading."

8. During the last two decades rapid progress has been made in stimulating interest in reading among an increasingly large percentage of pupils. "An urgent need during the next decade is to elevate standards and tastes for reading. This responsibility should be shared not only by teachers of reading and literature and by librarians, but also by teachers of the various curriculum fields and by parents."

9. Studies of individual differences have emphasized the need of adapting instruction more effectively than in the past to the capacities, interests, and needs of pupils. "This implies improved techniques for studying their needs and progress, reading materials that are adapted to a wide range of interest and reading ability,

flexible plans of class organization, and standards of promotion that provide longer periods of successful application and growth" uninterrupted by failure or repetition.

10. The need for corrective and remedial training has been widely recognized of late. The evidence at hand justifies the conclusion that much of the guidance that is needed can be provided effectively through carefully planned basic instruction in reading that makes adequate provision for individual differences and needs. Through such provision it is hoped that the need for special remedial classes in reading can be greatly reduced in the near future.

It has been possible in this brief article merely to suggest the nature of ten desirable trends in the teaching of reading. For detailed discussions of their implications and the steps by which progress can be achieved, the reader is referred to the Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I.

TRENDS IN THE TEACHING OF HANDWRITING

FRANK N. FREEMAN

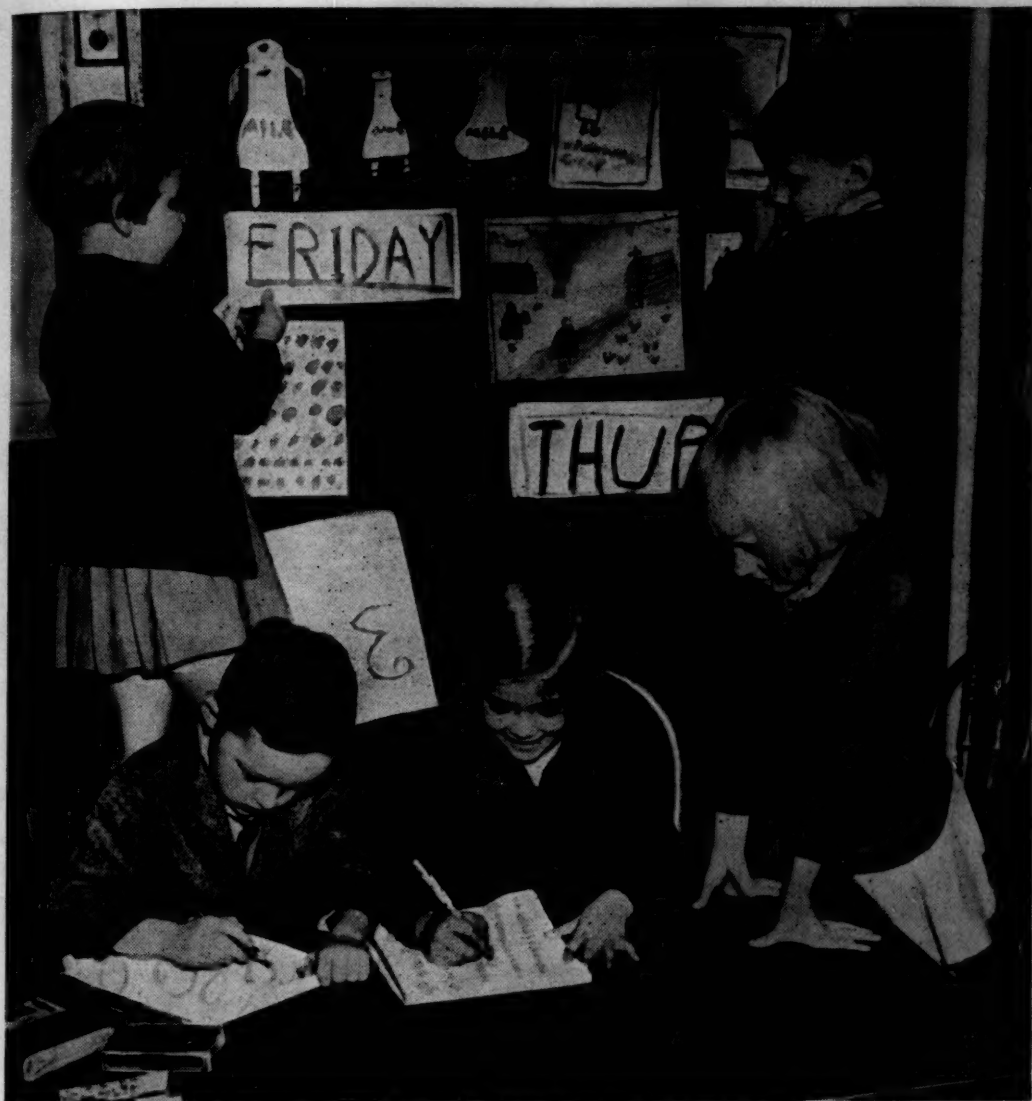
The writer has given in several places detailed summaries and bibliographies of recent studies of handwriting.¹ It will, perhaps, be most profitable in this article to discuss present problems and trends in a general way without attempting to summarize in detail the experiments on which statements of fact and opinion are based. The reader is referred to the above-mentioned articles for the supporting evidence, in so far as it exists.

Handwriting in the modern American school is in a confused and disorganized condition. Teachers and supervisors and

¹ "Selected References on Elementary-School Instruction. II. Handwriting," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIV, XXXV, XXXVI, and XXXVII (October, 1933, 1934, 1935, and 1936), 139, 140-41, 140-41, and 142-43.

"Handwriting," *Psychology of the School Subjects*, Chapter II, pp. 337-40. Review of Educational Research, Vol. I, No. 5. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1931.

"Handwriting," *The Curriculum*, Chapter II, B., pp. 138-40. Review of Educational Research, Vol. IV, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1934.



Kindergarten-Primary Department, New Orleans Public Schools

After using the blackboards for a long time, the Big Moment has come. For the first time these children are writing with fat pencils on unruled paper.

even laymen have had the impression for some time that school children do not write as well as they did a generation or more ago. This impression now seems to be confirmed by a statistical comparison made by Tenwolde.² A review of the circumstances which

have affected handwriting since about 1890 may help to explain the deterioration in handwriting and may possibly point the way to the remedy.

Until the nineties the teaching of handwriting in this country had developed through a fairly consistent evolution from Spencerianism to the arm movement or muscular movement writing. This style of

² Harry Tenwolde, "A Comparison of the Handwriting of Pupils in Certain Elementary School Grades 'Now and Yesterday,'" *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XVIII (June, 1934), Pp. 437-42.

writing was taught, first to adults and later to young children, by a rigid and formal type of drill. It was just becoming well established in the schools when it was dealt a heavy blow by vertical writing, which swept the country between 1890 and 1900. The dominance of vertical writing was brief but it left in its wake a number of intermediate systems which challenged the supremacy of muscular movement writing with its formal drill. However, this became the predominant form of writing taught for the next fifteen or twenty years.

About the middle of this period the somewhat dogmatic beliefs and rigid practices in the teaching of writing began to be questioned on the ground of laboratory experiments and tests. At the same time the beginnings of the activity movement, in the form of the incidental method, began to be felt. These influences weakened the authority of specialists in penmanship who were commonly trained chiefly in the technique of their craft and produced conflict between supervisors of handwriting and general supervisors. Something of the general uncertainty seems to have reached the children, which they took advantage of by adopting a carefree attitude toward standards in writing. Finally, in the twenties, manuscript writing came along, and now the modern form of incidental teaching called the activity method appears to confound the confusion still more, and it is little wonder that handwriting is in a sad state.

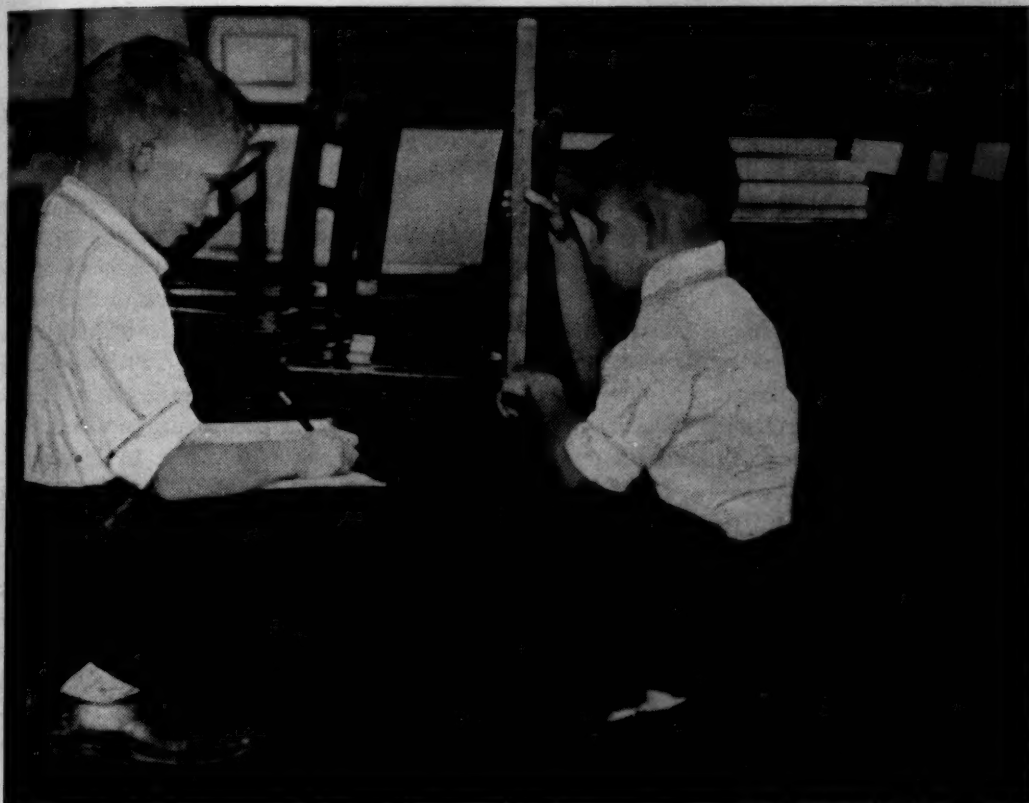
Some of us, perhaps, long for the good old days when the authorities knew just what should be taught and how it should be taught, and when they laid down the law in pontifical fashion. This produced a certain kind of efficiency so long as authority could be maintained. But such authority can never admit error and therefore cannot exist in company with the scientific study of educational problems. The reliance on scientific evidence will give a new kind of stability but it is different from the old. It is based

on experiment, study, and thinking rather than on personal authority. It is more arduous to attain as well as to maintain because it is never final but requires continued progress. When something new appears it must be examined carefully so that what is good may be incorporated into the old. This is the stability we must look for in the future, if stability is to be attained at all.

Stability based on the experimental examination of all the evidence bearing on educational problems is threatened from two sides, from the standpatters who resist all change and from the evangelists of innovations who can see nothing good in the old. If the field is left to these contestants we must look forward to a continued seesaw in which first one is on top and then the other to the destruction of the morale of teachers and pupils. The rescue of handwriting from the confusion into which it has fallen depends on the success of the scientific temper and method.

We have enough evidence, I believe, to indicate in a general way the answers to some of the chief questions on the teaching of writing. First, concerning the importance of handwriting in modern life. Many think that the typewriter is rapidly making handwriting superfluous. This is a serious error. The consumption of handwriting materials, such as pencils and ink, is increasing as rapidly as that of typewriters. Further, illegible writing is a source of much commercial loss, and inefficient writing is doubtless the cause of much waste of energy. Teachers need to have conviction on these points so that they may arouse in pupils a desire to write well.

Again, handwriting, like any complicated skill, needs to be specifically taught and practiced. Good handwriting is not acquired incidentally. This does not mean that we should return to a method which emphasizes formal drill, divorced from meaning. But it does require attention and consistent practice. Children do not dislike such practice; on the



Public Schools, Seattle, Washington

Practical arithmetic—invoicing school equipment

contrary, they enjoy the mastery which comes from it.

The major debate, at present, is over manuscript writing. I have summed up the situation, as I see it, elsewhere.³ The gist of the matter is that manuscript is bookscript writing which was developed and used for making permanent records. Cursive writing developed simultaneously with formal manuscript writing as a more facile mode of expression. When written at comparable speed it is as legible, and it has its own beauty. This is demonstrated in the book, *English Handwriting*, by Fry and Lowe.⁴ It seems clearly proved, however, that manu-

script writing is easier for children to learn and that it facilitates learning to read. Moreover, children can readily change to cursive in the early grades. Hence, the best plan seems to be to start with manuscript and then switch to cursive.

TRENDS IN PRIMARY ARITHMETIC

WILLIAM A. BROWNELL

Six courses of action are open with respect to primary arithmetic:

1. We may hold to the tradition of the separate arithmetic period for "formal" instruction on abstract number and for drill on the number combinations.

2. At the other extreme, we may pay no attention to arithmetic in any form, letting primary children learn what they can and will.

³ Frank N. Freeman, "An Evaluation of Manuscript Writing," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1936), pp. 446-55.

⁴ Roger Fry and E. A. Lowe, *English Handwriting*. S.P.E. Tract No. XXIII. London: Oxford University Press, 1926.

3. We may teach primary number "incidentally," by making use of the quantitative aspects of situations which arise "naturally" in the classroom.

4. We may carefully assure a variety of number experiences, with or without a special arithmetic period, these experiences centering around the uses of number in connection with the play store, the play post-office, and so on.

5. We may plan systematic instruction in arithmetic with an eye less to number uses than to number meanings, providing activities (such as the direct study of grouped objects) to give insight into number and number relations.

6. We may prefer systematic instruction which comprehends both appreciation of the personal and social significance of number (4 above) and understanding of number meanings (5 above).

Obviously, six short statements can represent but imperfectly the content, grade placement, materials, and methods required by the six different programs. It is equally obvious that the distinctions between the six programs are exaggerated when thus briefly described. Actually, in the primary grades of a single school we may find the second program (2 above) in grade one, followed by the fourth or fifth in grade two, and by the sixth in grade three. The number of possible combinations is large. Nevertheless, in spite of these admitted shortcomings, the classification may be helpful to our thinking about trends and desirable changes in the teaching of primary number.

Toward Significance.—No authority on the teaching of primary number longer advocates mechanical drill, unvaried repetition, and pointless computation as the sole methods of instruction. The limitations of these procedures are recognized: they cannot of themselves attain the ends which arithmetic should serve. There can be no question that *Program 1* (the drill program) has lost pop-

ularity very rapidly in the last fifteen years.

Neither can there be any question of the trend toward instruction which puts emphasis on the uses of number which, in a word, gives number *significance*. Arithmetic, it is agreed, must function in the life of the child by making him efficient in the quantitative situations which he will inevitably meet. Increasing acceptance of this view of arithmetic accounts for steady gains in the popularity of *Programs 3* and *4*. It may even account for the adoption of *Program 2* in some schools, at least in grade one. The assumption here may be that primary children, in addition to being "unready" to learn number, have no real needs for number which they cannot satisfy by their own devices.

In both *Program 3* and *Program 4* the arithmetic to be taught is found in the quantitative aspects of complex and essentially non-arithmetical situations. In *Program 3* occurrence of number is left to chance; in *Program 4*, however, occurrence is prearranged. In both programs the purpose for learning arithmetic lies, not in arithmetic itself, but in the child's eagerness to achieve some goal external to arithmetic. Thus, the child must buy a stamp or a loaf of bread, or he must cut out and make an envelope. Number is involved in these experiences because it contributes to the larger ends, and enough arithmetic is taught to assure successful completion of the transactions. If more arithmetic is taught, instruction takes on the character of *Programs 5* and *6*.

Toward Meaning.—Some workers in arithmetic believe that the *meaning* of number, as contrasted with its *significance*, is receiving too little attention. Meaning and significance, as they point out, are not synonymous terms. The meaning of "horse," for example, is embodied in the definition and description of the object; its meaning is to be understood only by studying the object itself within its system of related objects. The significance of "horse," on the other

hand, is dependent upon its uses, its values, its functions, its contributions to our well-being. The same distinction between meaning and significance holds in the case of arithmetic. The meaning of "six" is to be had only by studying "six" within its system, which is a mathematical system. Thus, "six" is $4 + 2$, $9 - 3$, $12 \div 2$, 3×2 , and so on. The significance of "six" is appreciated as we learn what it will do for us.

To say that the meaning of number must be taught is not necessarily to deny the worth of emphasis on significance. One may hold that significance is simply less important (Program 5), or one may hold that both meaning and significance are important, and equally important (Program 6). Of the two positions the second seems to be more promising.

Next Steps.—Those who support Program 6 are at the present in the minority, but this fact disturbs them not at all. They believe that the next step must be to widen instruction to include *meaning* with *significance*. Like those who sponsor Programs 3 and 4, they would continue stress on the social applications of number. One immediate reason is that in these applications the child sees number at work, and that in them he finds

his most effective motive for learning arithmetic. A more remote reason is that in the last analysis arithmetic is in the elementary curriculum only because it has social values—because it makes for wiser and happier living. And it is for this same reason that the meaning of number must not be neglected. Understanding number, the child (and later the adult) will not only be more efficient in the quantitative situations he cannot escape, but he will be more intelligent about them. Understanding number, the child (and the adult) will become more sensitive to the quantitative in life and will find more uses for number.

This program, with emphasis alike on number meaning and number significance, is not impracticable. On the contrary, it is feasible and attractive. In the arithmetic period useful and interesting activities teach number meanings and number relationships (the purpose now being intrinsic in arithmetic); in the extra-class time the uses of number in classroom happenings and in extra-school enterprises teach the significance of number (the purpose now being extrinsic to arithmetic). The greater the degree of meaning in number, the more apparent must be its significance.

SOME children cannot read because they are "word blind." In the majority of people either the left or the right side of the brain is in control of the performance of all skilled actions; in a considerable number of people, however, there is no such complete dominance and the result is that letters like b and d may be confused, or was may be read as saw.

When this is the case, the child may be taught to read by starting him out with the smallest unit in written language, the individual letter, and associating it firmly with its sound. This is a return to the method of the old-fashioned primer. By teaching the sounds of the letters and leading the child to build words phonetically the modern teacher can do fairly well with the reading disability cases if she will devote a daily period of remedial work to the individual pupil. Special material such as cards showing the separate vowels, diphthongs, and consonants are extremely helpful. From "Some Children Can't Read" by Marjorie B. Greenbie, Parent's Magazine, October, 1936.

How to Observe Young Children

LOVISA C. WAGONER

THE angle of vision determines what one shall see, how much or how little of the entire object or scene, the apparent relationship between parts, the placing of emphasis. Indeed, "point of view" to a large degree determines appreciation. Of primary importance, then, in the observation of young children is the angle of vision of the observer. Does he look at them as though they were miniature replicas of himself? Does he look at the child through the large or the small end of his mental telescope? Every observer must clearly appreciate what his own angle of vision is in order to observe justly. Is there a point of view which is conducive to a truer fashion of observing? If so, what is it?

Educational theory reflects the point of view of the period. Present day emphasis on freedom, self direction and activity seems to us to indicate a juster appreciation of the child than the sentimental, the transcendental or the patriarchal, the disciplinarian attitudes of other years.

Certainly it is to the great advantage of education that speculation with regard to child nature and needs is being replaced by observations of actual behavior, of responses in particular situations. Today it may be wise to caution ourselves lest efforts be limited too strictly to recording facts and neglect the subsequent pondering of the significance of these data.

It is easy, however, to train one's self to get information only from the printed page, or to accept uncritically statements because they have been frequently repeated. Skill in observation is achieved only by practice; we learn to see by looking, by watching, by giving heed to what transpires. The richer the background of experience, the more subtle observation may be. On the other

Observation of the kind described by Miss Wagoner of Mills College, California, is one of the most effective ways of learning about children. If, as Dr. Jersild points out in his article, we need to know the maturity of a child; to know the skills, habits and accomplishments they need to acquire and to have some idea about when to stress their development then we need first of all to become intelligent observers of child behavior.

hand, familiarity may lead to indifference and consequent inattention.

Adequate observation is dependent upon a seeing eye. Just as the satisfactory housemaid has an "eye for dirt," so the successful observer in a school situation is the one who understands what is to be seen, or in other words, knows what to look for and recognizes it when he finds it. The greater the knowledge, the more penetrating the observation may be. The great difficulty from which the unskilled observer suffers is inability to recognize what is significant; details do not stand out clearly, nor are they seen in meaningful relationship to one another. The undergraduate student, for example, when beginning to practice the observation of young children, is apt to see little because she does not know what to look for, may be uninterested, or observe in terms of personal reference. She sees that the children are "cute," that they are ugly or pretty, well kept or grubby; most of all she pays attention to the impression that she makes upon the child or, in other words, is concerned about the child's response to her as an individual.

The experienced teacher suffers from the opposite difficulty and is apt to see what she has always seen, to fail to note significant details and to interpret whatever is seen in terms of preconceived ideas. Mr. Justice

Holmes' comment regarding inarticulate major premises is pertinent here. The observer is able to guard against premises which he consciously formulates; he may counteract to some extent attitudes of which he is conscious, but the most influential premises and attitudes are those which are so firmly incorporated in his thinking that he does not realize that he possesses them.

The observer is passive; he is a spectator; he has no responsibility for introducing new elements into the child's situation. Yet observation is actually a matter of interaction between observer and observed. Any classroom teacher could comment at length on this statement. The observer, it must always be remembered, does alter the situation by his very presence. Not only does the addition of another person modify the group, but the child is quick to feel interest or indifference, reads skillfully signs of amusement, approval or disapproval. Consequently, the observer must understand clearly his function, his privileges and his limitations.

WHAT IS OBSERVATION

Observation is very largely a matter of perception, and perception depends upon alertness or, in other words, upon attention. The child attends to details which are unobserved by the adult because the latter is more apt to be interested in the object or event in its entirety. Not only does he see objects or events in a traditional fashion, but by virtue of previous experience he is able to grasp them as unified wholes. The child, on the other hand, may be unable to grasp the whole and consequently may become absorbed in details.

Expectation largely determines what will be perceived. We see what we look for. When one is gathering material on a certain topic, illustrative material leaps out from unexpected hiding places; reading, conversations, children's behavior, all yield their quota. In like manner, the man who expects

slights is always well supplied. The adage about greeting the world with a smiling face is also in point.

On the other hand, we must call to mind the strange unreality assumed by a word repeated over and over out of any context and the perversity with which a needed volume hides itself in the book case, only to reappear when not needed. It may be that the observer looks "too hard." There is a lightness of touch that marks the skillful observer.

Perception also depends upon the individual himself, since the present experience depends upon the knowledge, needs and tendencies of the moment. It is impossible for any human being to grasp any experience completely. To record events without interpretation is almost impossible. It is wholesome exercise, however, to school one's self in the accurate recording of events without interpolating significance of those events. Then, when adequate records have been secured, interpretation follows, since scientific observation involves not only clear and accurate perception but of necessity includes interpretation.

PURPOSES OF OBSERVATION

How, then, are the purposes of observation of young children to be summarized? A partial list follows. At any given time any single need may be uppermost. Certainly not all could be called into play at the same time.

To compare methods of handling different children.

To check the tendency to underestimate or overestimate the capacity of the particular group of children with whom one is working.

To throw light on the solution of a difficulty.

To suggest variety in the observer's own work.

To serve as a sort of yardstick for estimating the quality of one's own work.

To promote originality by stimulating ideas.

To reveal common difficulties.

To offset undue modesty.

PREPARATION FOR OBSERVATION

How is the observer to set about this business of observing?

First of all, there must be a plan. This involves the selection of the particular aspect or features to be observed.

Observation involves more than one sensory field. Not only does the observer *see*, but he hears and smells and touches. Perhaps the importance of careful hearing is least often recognized. Here again the adult may learn from the young child whose ears are alert for small and unusual sounds. In the schoolroom, sound has almost unrealized significance.

The attitude of the learner is essential. This is not a ready and uncritical acceptance of whatever is seen. Antagonism or suspicion may produce a blindness and deafness that make true observation impossible.

The observer must not become absorbed in details, yet he must compare and evaluate. He must be able to determine advantages and disadvantages as he ponders what he has heard and seen and felt.

Moreover, he must know what is to be expected of given children in given situations. This involves an appreciation of the children's environment in home and in community, of their educational opportunities, and also of the educational aims and resources of the school itself.

Everything a child does is important, yet selection of the most significant items is essential. The observer must keep in mind the fact that no segment of behavior can stand alone, since events that precede and those that follow any given item of behavior are part of the whole.

It is important to describe the situation as fully as possible so that when records are studied the items will appear in their context and not as isolated bits.

IMPORTANCE OF NOTES

The importance of notes is obvious. A consistent system should be followed as closely as possible. It is helpful to use cards so that for each day the record for each child may be kept separate. Every record must be dated and the time of day clearly stated. In

this way the child's progress may be studied and the observer's increasing skill made apparent. Notes should be written as soon as possible after the observation.

Notes must be precise; general or vague notes are of little value. It is of little importance to record that a child talked or that he talked about a rabbit. In so far as is humanly possible exactly what he said about the rabbit should be set down.

The use of symbols or of some form of shorthand is helpful. Several such systems for recording the various activity patterns of young children during free play indoors and out, or for recording language have been developed. Sketches, even though they are crude, are useful.

Note keeping and record taking should, however, interfere as little as possible with observation. Since it is impossible to write down a complete record for the entire observation period, it is well to alternate observation and the jotting of notes. Do not write all the time; observe carefully, then make notes.

METHODS OF OBSERVING

There are several suggestions as to methods that may be helpful. Select the child or children to be observed; it is impossible to watch all the children and in attempting to spread the observation, exactness is lost.

As a suggestion for basis of selection, the following possibilities may be considered:

Select children of different ages in order to compare performance in given activities.

Select children of the same age to observe in the same activity in order to study individual variation.

Observe a single child's proficiency in different activities.

Be on the lookout for instances that bear on a given problem.

Observation never exists for its own sake. Its value lies in the light it throws on a particular question. The observer asks himself a question just as does the speculative

philosopher. The observer, however, realizes that his question cannot be answered out of the knowledge he already possesses but only in terms of information to be derived from the children's behavior. The form of the question or the formulation of the problem serves both to select the type of data and to determine the placing of emphasis.

Observation may follow a definite schedule which calls for particular information or it may consist of a running descriptive account. Each is effective for its own purpose.

The observer, alternating his notes with watching, may follow a child or children throughout the observation period. He may, on the other hand, use what is called the short sample method. For a specified period of time he observes behavior. This period may be five minutes or even less. The intervals between samples and the number of samples will depend upon the purpose of the observation and upon the time at the observer's disposal. This method permits comparison of behavior of a number of children.

TYPES OF OBSERVERS

There are all types of observers, effective and ineffective, reliable and unreliable, pleasant and unpleasant, cooperative and interfering. Some of the unsatisfactory observers are:

The one who quickly becomes bored or indifferent.

The chatty one who enjoys visiting.

The one who interrupts.

The one who has only a moment to stay.

The restless one who wanders about.

The one who wants the children to notice him.

The one who talks to the children.

The one who wants to be in the middle of things.

The one who shows his superiority by pointing out defects.

The one who has a thesis to prove and warps his observation accordingly.

The observer who interprets as he watches.

The one who scribbles so busily that he gives himself little chance to observe.

THE HOSTESS

Not everything is in the hands of the observer. The hostess has almost as much to do with effective observation as does the visitor. If she is fearful of criticism, resentful of interruption or of interference with the day's routine, too hurried or too overburdened to explain what her plans, hopes and interests are, she makes profitable observation difficult.

Hospitality to observers is a delicate and difficult craft. To the degree that she herself is practiced in the observation of her own children, to that degree the teacher facilitates the observation of student or of visitor or of parent.

Note taking may not be permitted to interfere with teaching, but a sort of clinical alertness may be cultivated and may be conducive to effective teaching.

What Do We Want Most?

WHAT do we want most from our schools? That they educate for democratic citizenship? We build our curricula on several objectives—to discipline the mind, to build character, to develop aesthetic sense, to earn a living, to train for leisure, to train for citizenship.

"It is nonsense to suppose that an institution with so many objectives will move satisfactorily toward any of them. The result of such a blurring

of aims is that the finished product of the public school knows a little of this and that, but is trained for neither thinking, leisure, livelihood, nor citizenship. If the schools really want to affect the quality of American citizenship, they must get down to business about it. It must become their primary objective."—From "Can the Schools Save Democracy" by Avis D. Carlson, *Harper's Magazine*, April, 1937.

The Rating Scale as a Service Instrument

ETHEL KAWIN

ONE need only glance over most of the published rating scales to realize the vast amount of time and effort a teacher who uses them conscientiously must give to the task. Is that expenditure of time justifiable? Why have scales on which teachers rate pupils? When and how should they be used? What should rating scales rate?

Teachers have always had to face problems of personality and behavior. Why do some children with more than average intelligence fail to learn in school as rapidly as do mentally less gifted children in the same classes? What makes a boy with good home training turn out such slovenly schoolwork that no teacher can accept it as satisfactory? How can relaxed behavior be developed in a child so highstrung and excitable that he seems unable to concentrate on any kind of task? Would a very bright child who appears to be bored and spends considerable time annoying other children be benefited if promoted to a grade where the work would be more difficult and challenging for her? What should be done to help a little girl who becomes tearful whenever she is faced with a situation that presents any obstacles or difficulties? Is the boy who seems to be losing his self-confidence trying to live up to a standard which is expected of him but which really is beyond his capacity to achieve?

In the past there has been little in a teacher's training to prepare him or her to meet such problems as these, nor have there been methods at hand to help the in-service teacher when confronted with such difficulties. Teachers resorted, on the whole, to their "intuitive" understanding and sympathy and did the best they could, on this vague and highly

Miss Kawin, Psychologist in the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago and Director of Guidance in the Glencoe, Illinois, Public Schools, describes the practical values in rating scales, tells when and how they should be used, and indicates what traits they should rate if they are to be a service instrument to the classroom teacher.

variable basis, to help the individual pupil as each case presented itself. Teacher-training institutions are beginning to include in their programs courses in child development and psychology which attempt to make the student-teacher familiar with the behavior and personality patterns of various types of children. But will even those who have had such theoretical courses succeed or fail in handling the actual difficulties which confront the teacher in the classroom? The answer will depend largely on the methods and techniques through which they organize and systematize their impressions, experiences, and judgments in regard to each pupil in their usually too large classes. For all teachers, therefore, the rating scale (or some equivalent for it) has an important function to perform.

The author became interested in rating scale techniques through efforts to study the behavior and personality needs of kindergarten and first grade pupils as they enter our public school systems. Anyone interested in this problem is soon forced to consider the use of some rating scale device by which teachers judge their pupils, because of the lack of other more dependable and objective methods of gathering such data quickly on large numbers of children. Three investigations into the contributions and limitations

of teachers' rating scales of the behavior and personality traits of pupils have been carried on by the author with the very generous cooperation of groups of elementary school teachers.

From the experience gained and the results found in these investigations, the author is convinced that at the present time and under the existing conditions of most actual school situations, rating scales cannot constitute a dependable research instrument by which one can obtain a valid and reliable measure of the personality and behavior of the individual pupil. It is not the purpose of this article to present an analysis of the author's reasons for taking this position; such a statement has been prepared and is being published elsewhere.² What the author is endeavoring to present here are the reasons for her conclusions that rating scales have great practical values which justify their use as service instruments in actual school procedures and some suggestions, based on experiences in these three investigations, as to how teachers may use rating scale methods in order to derive these practical benefits from them.

PRACTICAL VALUES IN RATING SCALES

Probably the chief value to be found in the use of rating scales at the present time is the degree to which they stimulate teachers to a closer observation of children. Elsewhere in this issue appears an article on "How to Observe Young Children." The reliability of rating scales depends upon a number of factors, and not the least among them is the training and ability of the rater in making

observations and the opportunities to observe the traits to be rated. The teachers who have participated in the three rating scale projects carried on by the author have been extremely enthusiastic about the extent to which the use of these scales has increased their tendency to observe carefully and objectively the behavior reactions and personality traits of their pupils.

These teachers also say that the use of these scales—and especially the formulation and revision of these scales, in which they have participated—has helped them greatly to clarify their own philosophy and to define their own goals and objectives in the teaching process.

Another great value for teachers may be found in a study of the results of their own ratings and those of other teachers. To any one who works with rating scales, it soon becomes obvious that the ratings reveal traits and tendencies of teachers quite as much as those of pupils. Repeatedly the author has heard such comments as the following from teachers, "I realize now that I am more severe in my judgments of pupils than are other teachers," or "I should be more alert to the personality weaknesses of the children I teach."

On the other hand, the difficulty may not be in the teacher's judgment but in the actual behavior of the class. A group of primary teachers in one of the schools where the author worked came to the conclusion that they must all be weak in developing the habit of attention and the ability to concentrate, because all of them over a period of several years consistently found an undue proportion of their pupils rated as unsatisfactory in regard to these traits. They directed their attention to this problem and made special efforts to foster the development of habits of attention and concentration. The use of a rating form which readily yields a class "profile" or graph for the trait being studied is especially helpful to the teacher in getting this sort of perspective on her group.

¹ The first was a study of two hundred children who entered the public school kindergartens of Hinsdale, a suburb near Chicago, in the autumns of 1930 and 1931. One hundred and forty-five of these children are now being followed. A second study has been carried on in the three public schools of Glencoe, another suburb near Chicago, during the past two years. Approximately four hundred and sixty-one behavior and personality reports in rating-scale form have thus far been gathered on about three hundred Glencoe pupils at kindergarten, first, and second grade levels. In a third investigation, the children studied were four hundred and twenty-six pupils enrolled in the junior and senior kindergartens and the six grades of the Elementary School of the University of Chicago last year.

² This article will probably appear in a forthcoming number of *The Elementary School Journal*.

Rating scales can be very useful as records. They should furnish simple and useful records of developing personality and behavior patterns. It is important to remember that a rating is a report *which represents merely this teacher's opinion of this pupil*. Nevertheless, such a record furnishes one type of information about a pupil which may be helpful in many and varied ways—for administrative purposes, for guidance, for interviews with parents, and to help teachers understand their pupils. Ratings also furnish a convenient record by which a teacher can check the behavior progress of her pupils. Another very important function of rating scales is for selection of those pupils who appear to deviate seriously from their groups and who should be specially studied through more objective methods of examination and measurement.

RATING SCALES SHOULD BE BRIEF AND SIMPLE

To serve satisfactorily these practical purposes, a rating scale for the use of ordinary teachers should be a rather simple, comparatively brief affair. Neither the use of the scale, nor the analysis and interpretation of the results, should involve too great an amount of labor, if it is to function as it should in the immediate handling of the pupils who have been rated. Two major outcomes should result almost immediately from the use of a scale. First, the ratings should yield a total class report of each trait studied. One of the chief values of rating scales, and one which cannot be derived from other types of data, such as *anecdotal* records, is that they reveal not only the strengths and weaknesses of the group as a whole, but also indicate a child's position on each trait in relation to his fellows. This is always an important matter for consideration. To say that a child does not concentrate well is in itself not a very meaningful statement. But to say that he is so much more easily distracted than other children that if he were in a group of

one hundred of his own age he would be among the lowest five per cent in ability to concentrate gives one a basis for knowing that lack of concentration is in this case a problem which warrants study and treatment.

The second outcome should be some sort of a summarization of the scale which represents a brief description of the behavior and personality traits of each child. Such a summary can be used in conferences with parents and others. It furnishes the teacher with a picture of the child which aids her in efforts to develop his "assets" and to overcome his "liabilities." It may be passed on to a new teacher to help in understanding and dealing with the child.

Most of the rating scales now available are unsatisfactory for the purposes described above. Because they represent attempts to be "scientific instruments of measurement," most of the published rating scales are lengthy, complicated, and cumbersome. If we relinquish all claims that our scales are scientifically valid and reliable, we can have very simple *service* instruments, the character of which may be determined in each situation by the needs, interests, and purposes of those for whom and by whom the instrument is to be designed and used. Efforts to develop more reliable and valid rating techniques should be continued in situations and by groups which make genuinely scientific research possible, but this is not the type of contribution to be expected from the regular classroom teacher in the ordinary school situation. Her needs can best be met—and her contribution best be made—through a rating method designed to be a *service* instrument.

WHEN AND HOW SHOULD A RATING SCALE BE USED

As a result of the experiments referred to earlier the author is of the opinion that a wise practice for the teacher is to rate his or her pupils rather early in the school year—waiting, however, until he knows them well enough to have reasonable confidence in his

own judgments of them. Ordinarily, six to eight weeks after school opens in the autumn will suffice as an adequate period of acquaintanceship. A good check upon the reliability of these judgments is a re-rating made by the teacher one to two weeks after these first judgments have been recorded; this second rating should be done without consulting the first.

After these ratings of the new class of pupils are completed, the teacher should have access to the ratings made by his or her predecessor who taught this class the previous year. The judgments of the teachers may differ; the child may be reacting differently to the personality of a different teacher; or the child actually may have changed. In any event, the teacher will find it valuable to compare these two sets of ratings. If they agree rather closely, one's confidence in the opinions will be strengthened, so that the teacher may proceed with some assurance to deal with the behavior and personalities of these children on the basis of the judgments made.

Periodically, as the year progresses, ratings of special cases may be reviewed to check on progress made in regard to undesirable traits, but a complete re-rating (again, without consulting the earlier records) should be made as the end of the school year approaches. When these have been completed, the autumn and spring records should be compared and favorable or unfavorable trends in behavior and personality should be noted.

WHAT SHOULD RATING SCALES RATE

If rating scales are being frankly used by the regular classroom teacher as a *service* instrument, the traits in regard to which children are judged by their teachers should be selected from those which are considered important by the school in its general goals of personality development and as data for its records; those of which teachers wish to make a particular study, for one reason or another.

In discussing the practical values of rating

scales, comment was made that use of them helped teachers to clarify their educational philosophy and to define their own goals and objectives in the teaching process. This is especially true if the teachers themselves participate in choosing the traits which are selected for study. The relative importance of various personality and behavior characteristics and their relation to the school program may constitute a basis for very fruitful discussions among any teaching staff.

The technical problems involved make it difficult for a teacher without special training in this field to formulate a rating scale for his or her own use. Certain regulations which have been quite generally accepted by investigators and research workers in this field should be observed carefully by raters to improve the quality of their judgments. Briefly, they may be stated as follows: (1) Careful observation must precede rating; (2) Only one trait should be rated at a time; (3) Every child should be rated with reference to others of the same chronological age; (4) It may be assumed that ratings on a sufficiently large number of pupils will approximate a normal curve of distribution. Although one would not expect the traits of a single class of pupils to approximate a normal curve of distribution, teachers need to be on guard against tending to see their pupils in too favorable or unfavorable a light.

Selection of certain traits already included in some of the published scales may make it possible for almost any teacher to begin to use rating scales by studying a few traits at a time. Two of those which offer a wide range of traits are the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules (World Book Company, 1930) and the California Behaviour Inventory for Nursery School Children (developed by Herbert S. Conrad and published by the University of California Press, 1933).

The author cannot close without repeating one final warning suggested earlier regarding the interpretation and use of rating scale

results. In his book, *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*, Percival Symonds, after reviewing a large number of research studies related to rating methods, comes to the conclusion that in general the rating by a single judge is too unreliable to be useful, and that a composite of five to ten independent judgments is essential to establish adequate reliability. This standard should be observed for *research* purposes, but in a majority of ordinary school situations, at least at the

earlier grade levels, only one teacher knows each pupil well enough to "rate" him with confidence. If we are careful to remember that in the last analysis, *the ratings given any pupil by any single teacher represent merely this teacher's judgments or opinions of this pupil*, then for the *service* purposes discussed in this paper, teachers may safely be encouraged, even urged, to use rating scale methods to study the behavior and personality of their pupils.



Errata

MISS Mae McCrory who contributed the article, "Mental Hygiene Applied to Reading," in the September, 1936, issue of *Childhood Education* wishes us to note that the second paragraph of her article should have carried a footnote to the effect that this paragraph was quoted from "The Emotional Climate of Schools" by Laura Zirbes, *Educational Method*, January, 1935, 14:171-73.

We offer apologies to Miss Dorothy L. Edwards, Editor of *The Junior Natural History Magazine*, for the omission of the credit line on page 265 of the February, 1937, issue of *Childhood Education*. The credit line under the cut of the kangaroos and the poem, "A Kangaroo Baby Carriage" should have read: Poem by Dorothy L. Edwards, Editor, *The Junior Natural History Magazine*. Cut and poem used by permission of *The Junior*

Natural History Magazine.

We hope this acknowledgment, even at this late date, will call our readers' attention to this excellent new magazine, published by the American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th Street, New York City.

In the March, 1937, issue of *Childhood Education* on page 330, we stated that the magazine reviews for the April issue were to be prepared by the students of Mrs. Cora M. Martin, Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Texas. The reviews were prepared by the colleagues of Mrs. Martin rather than by her students. We are glad to call attention to our error and to note that the April reviews carried the names, titles and university affiliations of the contributors.

The San Antonio Convention

A Bird's-Eye View

MARJORIE HARDY

FRANCES MCCLELLAND MAYFARTH

FROM the first cordial greetings of Lasso girls and China Poblana maidens, with bouquets of Texas Bluebonnets and baskets of candy, to the final farewells with arms loaded with Mexican pottery, baskets and glassware, the Forty-fourth Annual Convention of the A.C.E. was a colorful, gay experience. Never will the delegates and visitors in San Antonio forget the gracious hospitality of the Texas hostesses.

Representatives from thirty-six states, the District of Columbia and three foreign countries—Canada, Japan and Mexico—attended eye-opening business meetings, challenging and entertaining general sessions, and stimulating study classes and discussion groups. The convention theme, "Today's Trends in Childhood Education," received such thorough presentation and analysis that "attenders" were heard to remark, "We have learned more about what has been done in childhood education, understand better what needs to be done, and have had a wealth of suggestions as how to proceed in the future." Program participants and leaders also were lavish in their praises of the stimulating program and opportunity for contact with others who are doing outstanding work.

Paul Hanna of Stanford University set the pace for the five-day sessions in the opening address, "The Child and the Teacher in Today's Educational Trends." "Teachers must become students of the society in which they live and of the children they teach if education is to keep pace with the rest of the world," emphasized Dr. Hanna. "Education has two roots—the biological and the sociological. If we are to think of teaching in professional terms we must become equipped with the scientific materials of child growth and understand the implications of the changes in our culture." He analyzed the present social scene as a change from a home-spun culture to one that is scientific and pointed out that teachers must be aware of the confusions which have resulted and must take an active part in bringing our changing culture into harmony with those environmental factors best suited for the growth and development of children.

The second general session was devoted to "Curriculum Changes in Response to the Demands of Everyday Living" presented by B. F. Pittenger, Dean of the School of Education, University of Texas, and to "New Methods in Evaluating the Progress of Children" by Madilene Veverka, Director of Elementary Curriculum in the Los Angeles public schools. An abstract of Dr. Pittenger's address appears as the editorial in this issue.

Miss Veverka pointed out that the changes education has brought about are in realms which do not lend themselves to weighing and measuring as coal or pork. "We have been ambitious to test our products even before we knew what the products were to be. Let us not be hasty now to clamp tests on the child in these newer wider realms lest we get a game or trick which does not give us what we want. There has been too much purposeless testing—reams of figures with nothing done about them." She emphasized the importance of making a home-school curriculum which takes account of the child's whole day as well as his whole personality; of making use of the children's opinions as to curriculum content, and of really living with "our children."

Texas in all its rich historical glory was portrayed in a pageant of seven episodes at the third general session in the Municipal Auditorium. It was written and presented by Mrs. Preston Dial, President of the San Antonio A.C.E., who served as co-chairman with Mrs. Cora M. Martin of the University of Texas. Dr. A. W. Birdwell, President of the Stephen F. Austin Teachers College, Nacogdoches, presented the prologue which surveyed the educational and historical background of "The Lone Star State." More than two hundred boys and girls—Mexican, Negro, and White—from city, county and private schools participated.

The climax of "Texas Night" was a fiesta on the plaza of the Old Spanish Governor's Palace with a Mexican Tipica Orchestra of forty pieces and Mexican Chiabas dancers furnishing the entertainment. Guests at the fiesta were greeted at the reception inside the Palace by the San An-

tonio Teachers' Council which had joined with the city administration, the public school officials, and the local committee in making possible the "Texas Night" program.

The fourth general session was devoted to discussions of the trends in cooperation between home, school and community by Lorine Pruette, Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association; Charles B. Glenn, President of the American Association of School Administrators, and M. M. Harris, Editor of *The San Antonio Express*.

"In the light of present-day changes in our social and economic world, parents must train their children for insecurity rather than security," said Miss Pruette. "In the past parents have tried to give their children physical and economic security but today their job is to provide internal security so that they may be better able to meet the insecurity in the world about them. We must give our children something to fight for. We must teach them the ideals of our democratic culture and give them a philosophy consistent with these ideals."

Dr. Glenn scored communities which permit politics to dictate the policies of the schools, pointed out the importance of "cooperation of the spirit" and emphasized that we must create an atmosphere in our schools in which character can develop naturally.

Mr. Harris stated that many communities do not cooperate with their schools and that they have not yet learned that the schools provide the best practices in constructive economy, else there would not have been such drastic salary and program cuts during the depression. He made a plea for more libraries and more books so that a love of reading and books might become the heritage of every child. He urged that we educate tax-paying citizens concerning the work of the schools so that we may have their cooperation in securing greater financial aid necessary for the education of children.

The Saturday evening dinner brought the convention to a stimulating close. Alice Temple whose dry wit kept everyone in gay good humor presided and introduced May Hill Arbuthnot who spoke on "What, Reading Aloud?" in her own inimitable style. She urged that we do much more reading aloud to children. "Because the child can enjoy keenly what is beyond his ability to read or to interpret, he should hear fine literature not only in the kindergarten but in every grade of the elementary school. Our program for oral presentation of literature must include the child's participation in reading and reciting

some of the literature he has grown to love. We must not place less emphasis on reading, but rather on a broader interpretation of the reading program."

Two business meetings were of particular significance. The work of the Association for the past year was reviewed, plans for next year decided, and new officers presented. The 1937 Yearbook will contain complete reports of these business meetings.

An event of interest was a pilgrimage to the San Jose Mission where guests saw a pottery maker at work, heard Mexican serenades, watched nimble-footed dancers, drank Tamarindo served with Fritos, and were initiated into the game of Piñata. Other events included the "One and Only" breakfast; school visiting in public, private and county schools; the Kindergarten Centennial Radio Program broadcast from Washington; the Sunset Memorial Service at the Alamo with music by an à cappella choir and wreaths placed in memory of the Alamo heroes, members of A.C.E. who had died the past year, and the children killed in the New London disaster.

The song and game festival celebrating the centennial of the first kindergarten was another delightful event. The Mother Plays, the singing games, the folk dances, and natural and creative dancing in the gardens of the River Road School gave the story of the development of songs and rhythms in the kindergarten program.

Last, but not least, the *Childhood Education* luncheon held in the Rainbow Terrace of the St. Anthony Hotel. Texas cowboy songs, "Home on the Range," "The Hills of Home" and "Old Paint" were sung by a cowboy artist, accompanied by Mr. Fox, composer of the songs. J. Frank Dobie of the University of Texas told yarns of the long-horned Texas steer who wandered all the way to Montana and of the coyote who ate red peppers. Mrs. Ernest Horn, presided. Mexican pottery favors and maps of San Antonio made by Aline Rather, instructor in art in San Antonio, added to the colorful setting of the luncheon.

In addition to the resolutions presented by the Committee, three resolutions were presented and passed from the floor during the convention sessions. The two presented by the Executive Board of the Association were:

Be it resolved: That the Association for Childhood Education express its deepest heartfelt sympathy through Mr. Shaw, Superintendent of Schools, to the entire Community of New London, Texas.

Be it resolved: That the Association for Childhood

Education appoint a committee:

- a. To study measures to insure the safety of children both within and without the school.
- b. To present within the year some feasible plan of action for the Association.

The Third resolution was presented by Ellen Olson, acting chairman of the Publicity Committee of the Association:

Be it resolved: That the Association for Childhood Education recognize the problem of providing adequate education for the child under six and take immediate action in regard to this problem.

And so closed an excellent convention with plans already in progress for the Forty-fifth Annual Convention in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1938.

SUMMARY OF STUDY CLASS DISCUSSIONS

"Time to go to class," said "attenders" at the convention as three o'clock drew near. Then hundreds of persons could be seen hurrying through the lobbies to the classes of their choice, selected from the ten offered on the program.

The outstanding features of the study classes were the continuity in thinking and discussion made possible by meetings on three consecutive days; the skillfulness of the leaders in keeping before the group the long range view and maturation levels as the subjects were discussed in relation to child development, and the stimulating, challenging and illuminating contributions given by persons from the floor who came from all parts of the country.

It is difficult to do justice to the study classes in as brief a summary as this must be. However, from the notes taken by the class assistants¹ and monitors the following account is given:

SAFEGUARDING NORMAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHILDREN

Through Child Guidance

Leader: Helen L. Koch
University of Chicago

- Factors that tend to cripple or warp personality.
To what extent should teachers be expected to be aware of these factors in the lives of pupils?
How can teachers be aware of their pupils' difficulties?
The role of conflict in personality development.

Guidance was defined as "any kind of contact with a child which might influence his development."

Emphasis was placed on the fact that no health and safety program can be effective unless it is built on an intimate study of community conditions. Granting that, sources of information, many of which are known but are not used, must be pointed out. Isolated bits of data are inadequate and misleading; but, by bringing material together, leads may be found in regard to program making. The effect of practices in school on mental health was emphasized, e.g., grouping and grading. No one system that would have all the values of various schemes tried in different places or that would be equally good for all communities could be described.

The opinion was expressed that a guidance bureau cannot do the entire job of caring for the mental health of children. Teachers have an important rôle to play. The need for cooperative effort in guidance work was recognized. California's educational conference plan was cited as an example of progress being made along this line.

There is a movement in this country for certifying psychologists, but only one state, New York, has actually put such into effect.

Through Teacher Guidance

Leader: Winifred Bain
New College, Teachers College,
Columbia University

- What needs in the present day teaching profession should teachers be prepared to meet?
What experiences and study should be provided to prepare prospective teachers to meet?
How should students be guided in their course of preparation?

Needs in the present day teaching profession which young teachers should be prepared to meet were discussed in the light of the needs of individuals, the needs of citizens and the needs of teachers. This discussion brought out descriptions of new curricula in many teachers colleges which put major emphasis on developing the teacher as a person with a broad cultural background, a scientific viewpoint and an ability to understand children of various age levels and as the products of the communities in which they live. That teachers should be prepared to participate actively and to make some contribution to the life of the community and should develop the habits of thinking critically and taking an unbiased stand on current issues. It was pointed out

¹ Assistants: Rosemary Walling, Trix Barbour, Bess Nash, Anne Workman, Lila Baugh, Mary Stretch, Mary J. Locker, Frances Berry, Martha Thomas, Mary Dabney Davis.

Monitors: Lucille Williams, Isabel Spence, Mrs. Tommie Lou Andrews, Virginia Moore, Cecelia Faulk, Alice Matthiesen, Mrs. Grace Wells, Zola Carlin, Frances I. Barr, Mrs. E. H. Powell.

that teachers colleges are accepting their responsibility for aiding students to acquire emotional stability, pleasing personal appearance, and to learn to live and work cooperatively with others and not to hold aloof from legitimate problems.

A plea was made for more active participation in the lower grades on the part of prospective principals and superintendents so that problems in this field might be better understood; for more opportunities for prospective teachers for actual contacts with children and for longer periods of participation; for subject matter instructors to have closer contact with young children in the classrooms; for legislation in many states in regard to certification of teachers; for making acquired skills more functional; and for intelligent follow-up of all inexperienced teachers until success is assured.

Colleges and training schools for teachers must set up definite standards with which to guide selection and measure achievement. Selective admission should include regents examinations; objective tests—intelligence, reading, English; personal interviews, and medical examinations.

Teaching is a creative piece of work and performance is the real test rather than examinations—comprehensive or otherwise.

TODAY'S TRENDS IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Trends in Curriculum

Leader: Helen R. Gumlick
Public Schools, Denver,
Colorado

Reconstructing the curriculum
Content of the curriculum
Evaluation of the developing curriculum

The curriculum should be reconstructed so as to make it continuous and to bring in all aspects of the child's environment. It was suggested that the most successful curriculum reconstruction is done when teachers, supervisors, administrators, parents and children have a part in the process. In order that the teacher may contribute more effectively to the curriculum revision, study groups should be arranged wherein they may discuss certain current problems vital in the lives of the people of that community. In as much as the whole community is involved in the development of the child, the whole community should participate in the revision.

A number of far-sighted schools are doing away with grades entirely. Others are moving

toward that stage in their practice of continuous promotion. The people in these school systems look upon school life as upon life elsewhere.

While no definite plans were made, it was suggested that each person should go into his own situation and try out some scheme looking toward continuous promotions, improving community relationships, adopting whatever curriculum which might more adequately meet the real needs of children for whom it was made.

Trends in Language Arts

Leader: Clara B. Baker
National College of Education,
Evanston, Illinois

Changing objectives in the development of oral and written language of young children and changing standards regarding desirable and appropriate language for children and adults.

Factors in the environment and procedure that foster growth in free speech and creative language expression.

How may literature, reading and writing be taught so that they may foster and not hamper growth in language power.

In discussing how standards are changing for more desirable and appropriate language for children and adults, it was urged that there be leniency in judging and correcting children's speech habits. Errors which persist are common to the community; many forms considered errors are coming to be accepted and some slang is now accepted. Rhythmical flow of meaningful and expressive words—vivid, forceful, picturesque and often unique and surprising—must come first before correctness.

In discussing environment and procedures leading to spontaneous language expression, the great importance of an organized, experienced curriculum built with children and growing out of their interests and needs was stressed and considered most essential. Also, a familiarity with appropriate literature for the age levels was considered important. Adults should watch their own speech habits, should guide, never ridicule or imitate and should do more listening to children when they talk. Dramatic, rhythmical reading of appealing verse by the teacher will often lead to choral work in verse speaking as children join spontaneously in the refrain, and later, perhaps, master the complete rhyme. Spontaneous rhythmical play with sounds on the part of very young children was suggested as a means of growth in speech.

It was urged that primary teachers study the characteristic patterns of spontaneous speech of

young children in order that early reading lessons may follow the child's natural speech, including the qualities of rhythm, repetition, parallelism, picturesque charm, and adaptation of sound to sense. It was agreed that by teaching reading to the child who is too immature, the pressure in learning to read would retard language development. Rhythmical flow of speech may be disturbed by overstress of separate words and letters in reading, and by stilted types of reading and writing lessons. It was suggested that children's spontaneous sayings relating to interesting experiences be caught by the teacher and used as early reading lessons; that teachers ignore the grade label on the cover of the reader and let children use books easy enough so that reading will be fluent, joyous, rhythmical.

Development will be most rapid under the guidance of a teacher who appreciates art and literature, nature and people, and especially, the child and his efforts.

Trends in Reading—Functional, Library

Leader: Laura Hooper
Public Schools, Newton,
Massachusetts

An examination of the classroom situation for opportunities for functional reading.

Building a reading program about children's purposeful activity.

The outcome of functional reading in terms of child growth.

Problems rising out of group discussion

Clarification of problems of reading readiness. Can it be limited to one age or grade? Too much stress is put on program in kindergarten and first grade and not enough on programs in succeeding grades.

The education of parents to an understanding of the need for a pre-primary program and for experience reading throughout the grades.

The basic system in its relation to child experience. Teachers are limited by plans for its use in an activity program. Need they be?

How may we evaluate functional reading? The public needs tangible proof of its value. Standardized tests measure only one phase of the total reading experience. We need observational records of children's responses to reading situations in making these records.

How are we to provide for the non-reader? Is he the result of emphasis on experience reading?

An interesting comment on the reading section meeting was made concerning the stage of growth teachers have now reached. It was felt that several years ago at these meetings leaders were urging the program of today and people in

the group were saying, "Yes, but you have small groups, and equipment." A few years ago there was more general carrying out of newer ideas, but with considerable misinterpretation. At this meeting there was evidence of having passed that period and of having reached the stage of less misinterpretation and many more honest questions and answers.

Trends in Arithmetic

Leader: W. A. Brownell
Duke University, Durham,
North Carolina

Number readiness.

Desirable content for primary arithmetic.

Material and methods.

The fact was stressed again and again that the same principle of learning for language and reading holds true for arithmetic.

The importance of quantitative thinking and skill in the use of number necessitates teaching meaning. The child acquires meanings through acquiring number concepts in connection with natural activities motivated by problems. The teacher makes much more use now of arithmetic right through the day. "Significance" then becomes evident to the child through the social use of number, for which provision should be made.

The effective teacher today teaches so that,

The child sees sense in what he learns, which is the case when number appeals to the child's intellectual capacity rather than to his memorizing capacity.

The child should understand what he is supposed to learn and how well he is understanding. The child will come to recognize number as a part of all living.

The child will use it and want to learn more.

The child is allowed to learn at his own rate.

The child is as much concerned with the process of his thinking as with its product. The school measures rate and accuracy. We need a measure of the child's method.

A better rounded conception of the purposes and functions of arithmetic in the primary was an outcome of the meeting, as well as clearer understanding of transfer of training in arithmetic.

In teaching needs, interest and a systematic plan of instruction should be given consideration.

Needs—All needs except the basic needs are artificial, since they are the results of experiences and growth in a human society. Since needs are the result of experience they can be created and the job of the teacher is to create needs.

Interests—They are related to needs and any program of instruction must plan to secure the highest type of interest.

Systematic plan of instruction—Possible from grade one on with assurance that children can learn, will feel the need for learning and will be interested in learning. This is concrete rather than abstract, active rather than passive, based upon problems rather than upon abstract symbols.

Trends in Art

Leader: Aline Rather
Public Schools,
San Antonio, Texas

Skills.

Knowledge.

Appreciation of art education.

Discussion began with the thought that the room teacher is the art teacher. Necessary equipment for conducting a progressive art program includes library, books, prints, slides, studio material—brushes, easels, paints.

Other topics discussed were those of coping with various stages of development in a single class, the intelligent use of school exhibitions and demonstration work, proper emphasis on museum study and excursions, importance and means of stimulating art consciousness in everyday life.

It was decided that there should be more required art training for the classroom teacher and more art taught.

Trends in Equipment for Schools

Leader: Mabel Kearns
National College of Education,
Evanston, Illinois

Play Materials and Toys.

General Equipment.

Modern Equipment designed to aid.

Nature Equipment.

Non-commercial Educational Material.

Selection of play materials and toys according to suitability and proper use at each age level, to development of skills, to development of social relations and independence and suitability from the hygienic, sanitary and aesthetic points-of-view was stressed. The point was made that while nursery schools and kindergartens have suitable playground equipment, many primary schools have not; that general equipment including furniture, cupboards, lockers, walls, shades, decorations, etc., should be selected from the standpoint of use, health and beauty.

Teachers should be more intelligent concern-

ing the biological, social and psychological needs of the child and pass their knowledge on to those responsible for providing equipment.

Modern equipment to aid children in reading was demonstrated.

Emphasis was placed on nature equipment suitable for classroom use and within reach of limited budgets. Non-commercial material was evaluated as was material selected which served as an acceptable substitute for, or of greater value than commercial equipment.

Trends in Rural Education

Leader: Hattie Parrott
State Department of Public
Instruction, Raleigh, North
Carolina

New plans for rural life: Morris R. Mitchell, U. S.
Rural Resettlement, Washington, D.C.

Place of the school in the new rural plan.

Use of local resources for educating the entire
community.

The first part of the discussion centered around the seriousness of the situations with which the rural school is concerned—that of need for community planning and living. The great changes for the better that have taken place in rural areas today, where community projects have been carried on indicate that the results, not the techniques, should be the test of the worth of the projects. Security, the need of today, is impossible without cooperative planning. The rural school is inadequate at present in meeting the problems of the community. The rural school itself must educate in terms of community life and needs. The need for trained leadership to carry out new plans is urgent. The camps for teachers conducted by the Parker district in South Carolina were praised.

A plea was made for re-defining our philosophy of education in the rural school and for a program of increased activity in the lower grades. It was suggested that there is no justification for importing biological material in a text book. All science work in a rural school should center around agriculture. Local resources of rural communities are not being used enough.

The entire discussion emphasized the importance of the teacher and pupil learning about the world in which they live, through those immediate contacts which they make in everyday living, with attention to the social and economic aspects of the community.

There was a distinct feeling that keeping rural education separate and by itself as it appears in

educational proceedings, meetings, etc., delays the changes needed.

Trends in Records and Reports

Leader: Katherine McLaughlin
University of California
Los Angeles, California

Survey of types of records, advantages and disadvantages of current practices.

Relation of progress reports and record keeping to the broader aspects of early childhood education. Practical problems involved in goals sought.

A critical survey was made through the use of slides and a special exhibit prepared by the Record Committee of the A.C.E. to determine purposes, types of records and record keeping, form and content of report cards, advantages and disadvantages of current practices. This study indicated certain significant trends of which the following are three:

More emphasis is placed on child growth:

in achievement in scholastic phases; in gradual maturing of personality or citizenship qualities through social and emotional development.

The "breaking up" into specific points analysis of the above—for example, instead of using only the word "social habits" on the card it carries items under social habits such as "cooperates with others" (in a way expected of one his own age), "is desirably independent," etc.

A trend toward seeking more cooperation of the home by:

note to parents explaining purpose of new type of report

conference with parents in working out new form

soliciting, encouraging, and urging parents to visit schools

teachers visiting in homes (suggestion was for the regular teacher to do this).

Discussion of the significance of these trends brought out the following indications:

An increasing recognition of the principle of continuity of growth in the early levels.

An increasing recognition of the importance and potency of environmental influences.

An increasing need for greater and more ultimate

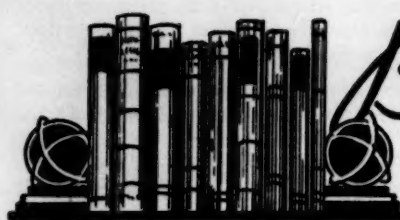
understanding on the part of the classroom teacher of the factors involved in growth—physical, mental, emotional and social.

A discussion of Dr. Wagoner's report of growth factors, recently prepared for a forthcoming bulletin on "Guidance of Early Childhood Education," prepared by a California Committee for distribution to parents and teachers, gave convincing evidence that teachers are unfamiliar with aspects of growth characteristic of governmental levels. Recommendations were made that more thorough courses including much observation be given at teachers colleges for students and for teachers in service.

Further discussion pointed out that children differ in rate of development, hence, the necessity for discriminating observation of these individuals; the importance of anecdotal records taken from time to time on such aspects of growth as the teacher finds the child in most need of guidance, this to differ from child to child, but always to include only significant observations.

The group concluded that effort should be made to secure accurate and significant objective data for basis of reports to parents and reports for accumulative records to keep in school files.

Why did so many persons voluntarily come so far (and for many it meant vacation time), to attend the convention and to join classes with Texans and their neighbors? May it not be true that they realized the value of fellowship, of thinking through the problems affecting child welfare and childhood education with this group? Perhaps their reason was the same as that of one of the newer members of the A.C.E. attending the convention who said, "I have enjoyed the A.C.E. meetings which I have attended because they are so free from petty politics, from evidences of selfish scheming, and from exhibitions of dominating leadership. The organization is significant enough to attract the real leaders and small enough for personal contacts with them. One gets so much inspiration from contacts with people who are typical of what the ideal teacher of small children should be."



Book... REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

CHILDHOOD: THE BEGINNING YEARS AND BEYOND. In five volumes. Edited by the Association for Childhood Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1936-1937.

Health: Physical, Mental, Emotional. By Richard M. Smith, M.D. and Douglas A. Thom, M.D. Pp. 278.

Play: The Child's Response to Life. By Rose H. Alschuler and Christine Heinig. Pp. 235.

Nature: The Child Goes Forth. By Bertha Stevens. Pp. 275.

Stories and Verse. Compiled by Mary Lincoln Morse and others. Pp. 272.

Songs from Many Lands. Compiled by Thomas Whitney Surette. Pp. 65.

The Association for Childhood Education delegated the editing of this set of books to its Committee on Parent Education, Josephine C. Foster, Chairman. The titles of the several volumes indicate the scope of the material dealt with. The authors and compilers in every case are specialists in their particular fields, and offer to parents of young children a wealth of material of a highly practical nature.

Volume I presents a simple, straightforward, wholesome treatment of matters that have to do with the child's mental and emotional health as well as his physical well being. The authors give detailed suggestions regarding the baby's room and furnishings, his food, clothing, and habit formation. They discuss sources of anger, fear and jealousy in young children and how to deal wisely with these emotions. Problems related to retarded and mentally superior children are given attention.

In volume II parents will find satisfactory answers to the numerous questions which face them relative to the expanding play life of their children, problems second only in importance to those which have to do with health, and

which are closely related to the child's physical, mental and emotional development. How to select play materials for indoor and outdoor use; how to provide and care for what is needed; how to cooperate effectively with children in some of their play activities; what to do about birthdays, the celebration of holidays, excursions, the convalescent child and pets, are some of the topics discussed in this very useful book.

The reading of volume III, *The Child Goes Forth*, will prepare the adult to guide the younger child in his investigations and explorations. The older boy and girl may read much of it for himself. It will open up a whole world of beauty and wonder and scientific interest within the environment of practically all children, whether they live in town or country. The lovely photographs and drawings add greatly to the interest and charm of this volume.

Of volume IV it is perhaps enough to say that the stories and verse in this collection were selected by the committee responsible for the three popular *Umbrella* books. In addition to the table of contents there is a very useful list classified by subjects such as stories and verse of adventure, of boys and girls, of fairy folk, of growing things, of laughter, of the wonderful world, of machinery.

Volume V contains the words and music of some sixty-five songs selected by Mr. Surette for their value in the musical training of children in the family. Included are Mother Goose songs, a few rounds, some Christmas songs, English folk songs, hymns, and some typically American songs.

In his Introduction Mr. Surette gives many illuminating suggestions as to ways and means of helping children to enjoy singing and listening to music. The songs are arranged according to difficulty and accompaniments have been made as simple as possible.

All five of these books have been generously illustrated with photographs and drawings, or pictures in color, and are attractively printed and bound.—A.T.

THE RHYTHM BOOK. By Elizabeth Waterman. Music edited by Marthe E. Ream. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1936. Pp. 150.

Everyone who reads this manual for teachers should gain a realization of the deeper significance of the basic element of rhythm in all forms of artistic expression. Teachers of music, dance, drawing, drama; teachers of preschool, kindergarten and elementary groups, who formerly considered their fields as somewhat unrelated, are now coming together seeking knowledge and learning from each other's experiences in creative work with children. If these teachers are able to follow practically some of the suggestions outlined by Miss Waterman they should experience the basic rhythmic relationship of the various forms of art.

Miss Waterman very clearly shows the common basic element of rhythm found in movement, vocalization, instrumentation, drawing and modelling. She gives concrete illustrations and suggestions for further experimentation.

To those who have had little experience or training in dance and rhythmic movement she offers a method of procedure which should lead the child of the lowest preschool age from the simplest exercises to a rich experience in rhythmic movement.

Those who have had dance training but who feel inadequate in the creative approach should gain in self-confidence if they follow some of Miss Waterman's suggestions. To all who have not already had actual experience in modern dance composition she points out the unlimited possibilities for composition in rhythmic movement by variations in time, intensity, and in direction or pattern making.

However, to use this book as a syllabus for method of procedure for rhythmic work would be to defeat Miss Waterman's own purpose which is without doubt to encourage this same creative effort in each reader. To actually work out in detail even one-eighth of the exercises as described would bring only a depressing result. She has recorded her own experimental

creative work. If other teachers, in reading the book will take *only those suggestions upon which their imaginations can visualize further possibilities*, the book should be a motivating force for further creative work of their own in this direction.

Perhaps at times the reader may wish Miss Waterman had given fewer examples; that she had restricted her illustrations, describing simpler exercises, and had given these with even more detail of description.

To those who have had creative experience in the composition of rhythmic movement, her book will help in the progressive organization of material. If others less experienced cannot visualize or clearly grasp her explanations of exercises, they should not become discouraged but should be grateful to her for her most valuable suggestions which should enrich their creative and teaching experience.

The drawings and music in *The Rhythm Book* very clearly illustrate what Miss Waterman means by the importance of correlating the arts. One can see in the works of these artists and composers the dynamic results of their having had an actual experience in rhythmic movement.—Portia Mansfield, Co-Director, Perry-Mansfield Camps and Director Dance Department, Perry-Mansfield School of Theatre Arts, Steamboat Springs, Colorado.

CURRICULUM GUIDES FOR TEACHERS OF YOUNG CHILDREN FROM TWO TO SIX YEARS OF AGE. By Ruth Andrus and Associates. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1936. Pp. 299. \$2.50.

This book is the result of a study made under the guidance of Miss Ruth Andrus by a group of supervisors and teachers in widely scattered institutions and school systems in New York State. It was written with the hope that it might become a suggestive "guide for curriculum making."

One of the strongest features of the book is the careful study which it makes of the characteristics and growth needs of the different age levels from two to six, and of the equipment, activities and teacher guidance which it suggests to be consistent with these. Typical daily programs are given on each of the age levels with helpful suggestions for carrying out the vari-

ous types of activities. The book meets a special need when it includes plans for five-year-old children in one- and two-room rural schools.

Part IV which comprises the major part of the book presents illustrative material, a sampling of actual experiences which have been provided for the different groups of children included in the study. Many helpful lists of songs, stories, poems and pictures with references for the teacher are provided. In the remaining parts of the book are included home-school relationships with the development of valuable suggestions for bringing these into being, lists of materials and supplies, and a very helpful bibliography with brief evaluations of books suggested for the teacher.

Curriculum Guides will be especially helpful to students in training who are studying child development on the different age levels and are participating in student teaching, now on one age level and now on another. Parents will also profit by the specific help which is given through records of situations provided, of children's typical responses, and of teacher guidance and definitely stated procedures, together with analyses of these.

The organization of the book does not lend itself so readily to the busy classroom teacher who is working with children of a single age level. She will find suggestions for her group scattered throughout the book. It would doubtless be more widely used if material for two- and three-year-old children were gathered into one section of the book and that for the fours and fives into another. However, a teacher of any one of these age groups will receive great benefit from reading the entire book.—Louise M. Alder, Milwaukee State Teachers College.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Reviewed by MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT

ROLLER SKATES. By Ruth Sawyer. Illustrated by Valenti Angelo. New York: The Viking Press, 1936. Pp. 186. \$2.00.

A book by Ruth Sawyer is always an event and this book is not only by Ruth Sawyer but about her and of her. A more lovable and lively heroine than Lucinda has not appeared in many a day. Swooping through the city streets on her roller skates she makes friends with cab drivers,

policemen, fruit-stand Tony, an Oriental princess and stranded Russians. These and many others make her year of being an orphan a series of warm friendly adventures with some tragedy thrown in. "Life has been higgledy, piggledy. I love it that way," writes Lucinda in her diary, between producing *The Tempest* in her toy theater and having a picnic with Tony and Old Rags-an'-Bottles. Through escapades, adventures and griefs Lucinda sweeps along "like a small, square-toed, square-cut Winged Victory on wheels."

Children from nine to twelve will enjoy this book and adults will finish it with a sigh for that "clear, vigorous flood of life" that spells childhood.

SAMBO AND THE TWINS. A New Adventure of Little Black Sambo. By Helen Bannerman. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1936. Pp. 80. 75 cents.

Of course, every child has wanted to hear more of little Black Sambo and after thirty years here is a new story. Little Black Sambo is older and has twins to look after, Little Black Woolf and Little Black Moof. When the twins are stolen by the monkeys, Black Sambo and the eagle manage a thrilling rescue.

This story lacks the miraculous perfection of *Little Black Sambo*; a perfection that has always eluded analysis. Nevertheless, it is an appealing little tale and everywhere, children are saying, "Let's hear that new Sambo book," and are apparently taking it to their hearts along with the original *Little Black Sambo* of thirty years ago.

MING AND MEHITABLE. By Helen Sewell. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. 75 cents.

Here is a small book for small persons with discrimination and humor. The setting may be Guam but any child who has subjected her pets to the indignity of being dressed in dolls' clothes and treated like a baby will understand Ming and Mehitable. Of course, the outraged Ming runs away and Mehitable suffers considerably before she finds him and promises never to offend again. Story and pictures are perfect for children from three to seven.

Editor, MYRTLE L. KAUFMANN



Among... THE MAGAZINES

A NURSERY SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL AGENCY. *By Viola Burlison Carpenter, Progressive Education, February, 1937.*

The year 1933 was an unfavorable time to crystallize the idea of a pre-school on a cooperative basis. However, after purposeful reading and personal contacts, an interested group of parents appealed to the Education Department of Whittier College, Whittier, California, and their nursery school became its first "Extension Unit" Nursery School of Broadoaks.

A suitable house with a splendid yard was bought. After the parents themselves used paint, lumber, and fabrics in quantity to perfect the physical equipment, and a trained teacher was employed, the school was ready to open. The program was planned with a regular teaching schedule from nine to twelve o'clock, five days a week, with afternoons for records and conferences. Adult lectures and study groups were opened to friends as well as patrons.

The school functioning has now divided itself into educational, executive, and financial divisions. The educational division is responsible for all connections with the supervisor from the college, the work of the director-teacher, evening lectures and study groups, and for the circulation of books and magazines. The executive division is composed of the general chairman and a committee of the secretary, treasurer, and two other members whose duties are to plan the policies of the school as a whole and arrange programs for parent meetings. The financial division is responsible for planning the budget and collecting tuition. In some cases a portion of the children's tuition is met by the parents' contribution of service, such as teaching assistance, clerical work, labor on buildings and equipment, furnishing supplies, legal advice, medical service, and executive service.

A cooperative nursery school of this type offers constructive outlet for the interests, skills

and native abilities of parents. From such endeavor comes growth in adult personality. Parents study their children and join in more conscious planning for their development. At the same time the children know that their parents are a part of the school, and there results the most wholesome, lasting coordination in the family life.

"This school is not a location, nor a building, nor a name. It is a body alive in hopes and responsibilities toward childhood, to its opportunity for personal adjustment and family integrations, as well as to its privilege to demonstrate a philosophy of education in the community."—Elizabeth Bailor, Third Grade Teacher, Jefferson School, Logansport, Indiana.

TENDING A "CHILDREN'S GARDEN." *By Gretchen Ostrander Murray and Charlotte Gano Garrison, Independent Woman, March, 1937.*

This article presents a résumé of the kindergarten situation in this country, giving in brief the story of its inception, the roster of pioneer and present-day leaders, the types of position offered in the field, the training required, and the economic expectation of those who qualify for kindergarten teaching. Its chief intent is to direct the judgment of one contemplating kindergarten work, and to this end the authors discuss the personal qualifications of the successful kindergartner together with the advantages and disadvantages in this branch of education. "Misfits are costly and tragic all the way around."

The kindergarten teacher of today occupies a strategic position in the field of education and in the community. "Wherever there are children who need something, there is a job for the kindergartner." These activities range from the tying of a shoe to discussing the Hereafter. While meeting the demands of the moment, the ultimate needs of the group and of individuals

must be uppermost in mind.

An enumeration of the personal qualifications of the kindergarten teacher stresses a genuine interest in others and the ability to work satisfactorily with them. The kindergarten teacher should be attractive, intelligent, open-minded, patient, calm, and healthy in mind and body. She should possess personal integrity, common sense, good judgment, a controlled enthusiasm, a sense of humor, the ability to organize, imagination, and initiative. She should appreciate the dignity of labor and maintain easy relations with little strain.

The advantages in being a kindergarten teacher include the opportunity to be of real service to children and to the community, the keeping of a fresh point of view through childish contacts, and the satisfactions that come in watching the process of growth. By way of disadvantages the writers list the nervous strain of constant responsibility for immature persons, the tendency to grow one-sided, and the relatively small salary for the service rendered.—Bessie Horning, Principal of Daniel Webster School, Logansport, Indiana.

HOW CHILDREN LEARN. *By Helen Bott.* *Parents' Magazine, March, 1937.*

Success with children requires an insistence upon a reasonable amount of routine which stabilizes the child's life, and upon the ability to enter into an understanding of his viewpoint and interest in order that we may adjust our expectations to his capacity and to his stage of development.

Naughtiness may be the child's attempt to learn by experimenting as he struggles with his interdependent physical and social needs. "Even the child who clamors for a drink after he has been put to bed is usually asking primarily for company and reassurance."

The adult is responsible for his own adjustment to the circumstances of the child's development. This can best be done by setting a series of goals each of which is a stepping stone toward any new achievement. Such a procedure increases success and offers opportunity for encouragement through praise. By easy gradations the goal is advanced without the demands seeming unreasonable at any stage.

In forming new habits physical conditions should be kept constant and simple. The child

should eat at home with his own utensils, and study at his own desk in his own corner. The same principle holds for personal relationships. It is desirable that one teacher and one method be used. In the home he should not be handled successively, even simultaneously, by the various members of the household. The situations should be stabilized as well as the child. He should be spared disturbance resulting in a feeling of strain, urgency, pressure, insecurity, and emotional tension.

A quiet, poised personality, a pleasant impersonal attitude toward the child's emotional reactions, together with confidence in the victory of a situation designed for learning, is the best setting for success.—Mary L. Haas, Second Grade Teacher, Hendricks School, Logansport, Indiana.

CHILDREN'S PREFERENCES FOR CONVERSATIONAL TOPICS. *By Mildred A. Dawson.* *Elementary School Journal, February, 1937.*

The author assumes that the most forceful teaching is based on the psychological principle that learning is most effective in a lifelike situation which to the learner seems vital and worthwhile. Therefore, a most important step in planning the curriculum is to ascertain the natural interests of children and to include these interests and activities with the objectives.

The reported investigation was concerned with children's interests as revealed in their spontaneous expression, subject to three restrictions. (1) It included only pupils in the four upper grades of the six-grade elementary school. (2) It dealt with oral expression only. (3) The pupils were self directed, not guided in any sense by adults. Data were received from twenty-four schools in seven states, which were representative of four types of regions of the nation.

This investigation was designed to reveal those composition topics possessing such general interest as to merit their inclusion in the curriculum. The objective is justified, since the interests of children of the intermediate ages were found to be relatively stable. Results of this investigation reveal that children's interest in games and sports, in their pets, in their personal experiences, and in the trips they have enjoyed, are about equal in most environments.

This study indicated trips to be of more in-

terest than did the earlier investigations and finds animals not a particularly popular topic of discussion. Yet it concludes that animals as pets are very interesting. The study also reveals the fact that young children have more general interest while there is a tendency for older pupils to concentrate on a few topics.

The writer believes that one of the most significant values of this report lies in the inspiration it may offer other teachers to study interests and activities of their pupils in order that these may be utilized in giving new life to classroom situations and in enlivening the curriculum.—Hazel M. King, Kindergarten Teacher, Daniel Webster School, Logansport, Indiana.

THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE IN THE ONE-ROOM COUNTRY SCHOOL. By *Dewey Fristoe*. The Elementary English Review, February, 1937.

Training in the use of the English language as given in the average one-room country school is somewhat inferior to that given by graded schools, the difficulties being those pertaining to (a) instruction, (b) correlation, and (c) community attitude.

With language viewed as grammar its time on the program is sometimes reduced, and then is often restricted to training in written English. Acceptable work gets little praise as attention is focused on the indication of classroom errors which may not include many of those heard on the playground.

A card index of the individual spoken errors, supplemented with diagnostic tests on the formal phases of written English, should point the way for the more economical use of teaching time. The workbook, if not expected to function automatically, can reduce the amount of such exercises to be supplied by the teacher, and the text book may be used as a reference rather than as an outline of material to be covered.

Motivation through a school society, a hobby club, the school paper, play writing and dramatization, exchanges of letters and booklets, and a weekly broadcast will provide the zest that improves accomplishment. Several groups on differing levels may be assigned responsibilities according to their powers, thus uniting the school in some larger undertaking.

Community cooperation should be sought

through a Parent-Teacher Association, a Community Club, or a program directed toward good English. One school district became interested in detecting the errors made on the Amos and Andy radio skit.—Myrtle L. Kaufmann, Elementary Supervisor, Logansport, Indiana.

AFTER MANUSCRIPT, WHAT NEXT? By *Ala M. Stone and Ethel Irwin Smalley*. Progressive Education, February, 1937.

Practically all studies agree that, in the first and second grades, manuscript is easier to learn, is more legible, and is faster than cursive writing. Furthermore, it is more rhythmical, tends to reduce both eye and physical strain in general, facilitates beginning reading and spelling, and can be as individual as cursive writing.

It becomes necessary to develop from manuscript writing a style having the beauty and distinction of these simple forms. Confident that it is the joining and the loop which complicate the shape of the letter and make it difficult to read, a means of dispensing with these becomes desirable. A study of notable examples of adult writing supplies varied, interesting styles worthy of imitation. These models provide for individual variations, show evenness in distribution, and show few joinings. All loops are avoided.

These joinings may be introduced as early as the third grade or at any later time when a rhythmical ease and standard of beauty have been reached. It is unwise, however, to wait until the writing load in school is too heavy to introduce any change which cannot quickly become automatic.

It is imperative that the pupil first be taught the proper procedure in the making of the simpler forms, the simplicity of which must not be lost in the subsequent joinings. After these simpler forms have become automatic, introduce a few joinings. "Attach the letter *o* to such other letters as *w*, *v*, *m*, *n*, and *u*. The crossbar of *t* and of *f* can be extended to make very natural and easy joining with letters which begin at the height of a small letter such as *o*, *u*, *w*, etc. Beginning with such elementary joinings as these, one may progress gradually to those which are more ambitious."—Hiltrude Holland, Third Grade Teacher, Columbia School, Logansport, Indiana.



Editor, JOHN A. HOCKETT

Research.. ABSTRACTS

"THE STABILITY OF ARTISTIC APTITUDE AT THE CHILDHOOD LEVEL." By *Aulus Ward Saunders*. *Psychological Monographs, Volume 48, No. 1, 1936. Studies in the Psychology of Art. Volume II. University of Iowa, Studies in Psychology, No. 19, Pp. 126-154.*

This study was undertaken to secure evidence of the possibility of influencing ability in art and to determine the conditions and factors conducive to improvement. Seven boys and seven girls in grades 1 to 3 with an average I.Q. of 121 were selected as experimental subjects. Ten children were definitely inferior in art ability, while four were selected because of their demonstrated superiority in this field. Ratings of the spontaneous drawings and paintings of the children were secured at the beginning, middle and end of the experiment from qualified supervisors of public school art.

A definite program of stimulation in art was carried on for two school years. The investigator met with the children for periods of 30 to 45 minutes twice a week, at the same time the school's regular art classes were conducted. He stimulated the children through judicious praise, visits to art exhibits, selection of pupils' best work for display, and provided materials for art expression in the pupils' homes. The children were given considerable freedom and encouragement to express their own conceptions in their own way. The experimenter criticized and gave help sparingly, usually upon request only. In the early weeks the children of inferior art ability exhibited attitudes of play, disinterest, or helplessness when they found themselves unable to succeed in graphic expression. These attitudes disappeared and confidence grew as they were helped to succeed and won commendation.

At the end of the two-year period all of the pupils of inferior art ability showed striking

improvement. Four were rated superior, and the others, average. The amount of gain was somewhat commensurate with the length of period of special stimulation and the degree of inferiority at the beginning. The author concludes that under especially favorable conditions a radical change in level of art ability may be brought about.

The following are some of the conditions which he claims tend to produce inferiority at this level: unfavorable, inartistic home conditions; lack of experience in drawing; use of inappropriate materials; lack of incentive, and lack of sensitivity to the basic art principles of balance, color harmony and the like.

CAUSES OF FIRST-GRADE NON-PROMOTION IN THE LIGHT OF MEASURED INTELLIGENCE. By *George C. Kyle*. *The Elementary School Journal, February, 1937, 37: 415-428.*

Data for this analysis of non-promotion were secured in a progressive city school system in which considerable attention was given to the diagnosis of difficulties and the adjustment of individual pupils. During a period of twelve years non-promotion in the first grade averaged 8.7 per cent, the rate being 10.5 per cent in the low first and 6.8 per cent in the high first grade. During the twelve-year period, 2,228 first grade pupils failed to be promoted, but complete data were available for only 1,485 who are included in the present study.

Slightly more than half of the non-promoted pupils had I.Q.s between 90 and 109. In 12 per cent of the cases the I.Q. was 110 or above, and in 36 per cent, below 90. The most frequent causes reported for non-promotion were immaturity, learns slowly, and irregular attendance, each of which accounted for more than 100 cases. Other causes accounting for at least fifty

cases were low mentality, weak in reading, absence due to illness, poor health but not absent. Still other causes were lack of application and attention, foreign language handicap, change of school during year, received with weak foundation. The distribution of intelligence among the pupils failed is interesting and significant but cannot be reported in a brief abstract.

Several general conclusions are drawn from the study. Careful attention must be given to the rate of learning for each child. Planning is especially necessary to meet the needs of immature children. Non-promotion may be reduced through special provision for pupils who attend irregularly or who must be absent for considerable periods. Provision must be made to insure challenge in the school program for all pupils in order to avoid disinterest, lack of effort, and behavior problems. The evidence of considerable non-promotion among children of superior ability offers a distinct professional challenge.

THE RELATION OF PARENTAL OVER-ATTENTIVENESS TO CHILDREN'S WORK HABITS AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS IN KINDERGARTEN AND THE FIRST SIX GRADES OF SCHOOL. *By Berta Weiss Hattwick and Margaret Stowell.* *Journal of Educational Research, November, 1936, 30:169-176.*

This investigation was undertaken in order to discover the specific effects on the work habits and social adjustment of children in kindergarten and elementary school produced by over-attentiveness in the home. Two types of over-attention were considered: "babying," and exerting too much pressure on the child. The cumulative records kept on file in the Winnetka Public Schools were utilized in securing 146 cases for careful study: 51 cases in which the child was babied by parents, 22 cases in which too much pressure was exerted upon the child, and 73 cases from well-adjusted homes. The authors consider the Winnetka records especially suitable for such a study because the teachers have all had considerable training in mental hygiene, they are in unusually close contact with the homes of their pupils, and are conscientious in making frank entries upon the cards. The diary records yielded two types of data: (1) evidence of the adequacy of the child's work habits and social

habits, and whether they were creating problems; (2) illustrations of the specific types of behaviors which the teachers used as evidence of poor adjustment in making their entries.

Marked differences were found in the work habits of children from well-adjusted homes and from homes in which they were babied or pushed. For example: 96 per cent of the pupils from the latter type of home were described as, "Needs pressure, encouragement, supervision or individual attention from teacher," while only 16 per cent of the pupils from well-adjusted homes were so described. Eighty-nine per cent of the "babied or pushed" children were described as, "Doesn't work to capacity; meagre accomplishment; slow, inferior progress," in contrast to only 23 per cent in the case of pupils from well-adjusted homes. Large differences in the two groups were noted in other respects such as: carelessness in work, dawdling, easily discouraged, distractible, poor concentration, indifference, lack of self-confidence. In summarizing, the investigators find that from 75 to 80 per cent of the children babied or pushed have poor work habits, in contrast to 75 per cent of the children from well-adjusted homes who have good work habits.

In respect to social adjustment, similar differences are reported. Fifty-two per cent of the pushed or babied group are considered socially immature, while only seven per cent of the children from well-adjusted homes are so characterized. The former group is found to be less dependable, more nervous and high strung, more docile and dependent, more self-conscious, more likely to seek attention, and less likely to show initiative than those from well-adjusted homes.

A comparison of earlier and later records for the same children revealed that children who are babied at home tend to develop more social difficulties and progressively poorer work habits as they advance in the grades. The authors suggest the existence of a vicious circle; the babied children do not get along well at school, the parents become more attentive, and the child becomes more poorly adjusted. The opposite effect is noted in the case of children from well-adjusted homes. As a final conclusion, the authors stress the fact that the work of the school is largely aided or hindered by the attitudes and influence of the parents.



News . . . HERE AND THERE

MARY E. LEEPER

NEW NATIONAL OFFICERS

National officers of the Association for Childhood Education are elected to serve for a term of two years. A president and two vice-presidents



Jennie Wahlert



Frances M. Tredick

are elected one year; one vice-president and a secretary-treasurer the next. Three new officers were elected in 1937.

Jennie Wahlert, Principal of Jackson School, St. Louis, Missouri, is President of the Association for the next two years.

Lovisa Wagoner, Professor of Child Development, Mills College, California, is Vice-president Representing Nursery Schools.

Frances M. Tredick, Field Secretary, Wheelock School, Boston, Massachusetts, is Vice-president Representing Kindergartens.

Pictures of Jennie Wahlert and Frances Tredick appear on this page. We hope to present a picture of Lovisa Wagoner in a later issue.

Those remaining on the Executive Board are Jean Betzner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Vice-president Representing Primary Grades, and Maycie Southall, Professor of Education, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, Secretary-Treasurer.

The first meeting of the new Board was held in San Antonio immediately following the 1937 convention of the Association. A program of work for the future was outlined, including publications, committee projects, conferences, and local Branch activities. These plans were based upon the resolutions adopted by the 1937 convention body.

TEXAS AND THE A.C.E. CONVENTION

In a hundred different ways Texas welcomed the A.C.E. For those who attended the convention at San Antonio, March 30-April 3, there were happy smiles, cordial words, firm hand clasps, willing services and lovely gifts. We were welcomed to Texas through the unusual growth in interest in the A.C.E. throughout the state. Here are the records of growth for Texas.

	1936	1937
Number of Branches	15	25
Number of Contributing Members	53	216
Number of subscribers to <i>Childhood Education</i>	174	326

Charter members of the two organizations now combined in the A.C.E. attended the 1937 convention. Fannie A. Smith, of Bridgeport, Connecticut, and Barbara Greenwood, of Los Angeles, California, were at Saratoga Springs in 1892 when the International Kindergarten Union was organized. Ella Victoria Dobbs, of Columbia, Missouri, attended the first meeting of the National Council of Primary Education in Cincinnati, in 1915, and was the first president of the Council. The presence in San Antonio of these prominent leaders added much to the enjoyment of the delegates.

Representatives of three countries other than the United States were present at the A.C.E. convention in San Antonio. These were Clara Brenton, of Canada; Mrs. Grace Hegger Lewis,

of Mexico; and Anne Peavy, of Japan. It was a very real pleasure to meet these delegates.

Three A.C.E. Branch forums were held during the convention. The discussion on the work of City and County Branches was led by Maycie Southall. Student Branch activities were considered under the leadership of Jean Betzner. Irene Hirsch, Buffalo, New York, conducted the discussion on problems of A.C.E. State Associations. Secretaries for the three forums were Marcella Schneider, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Henrietta Smith, San Marcos, Texas; and Chloe Millikan, Maryville, Missouri. Their reports will appear in the May issue of the A.C.E. BRANCH EXCHANGE. Branch officers will receive copies. Branch members may receive them by sending a stamp to A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

A Student Sees the Convention. "The thrill of being chosen to represent my college at a convention of educators from all over the country was only a fore-runner of what was to come! As a student, the thing that meant most to me was the opportunity for social contact with leaders in the field of education. It was inspiring to have them meet the students on a level of equality. In the study classes we heard leaders from all over the country tell of their own experiences, and all took part in discussing their values.

"I have been in the tide of two conventions, at New York last year and now in San Antonio, and I can truthfully say that I came away from both feeling a definite part of the professional world. I am already, as a student, in a professional organization which will be uplifting to me throughout my career, and will identify me with a recognized group of thinking people."—Lucile Totman, Wheelock School, Boston, Massachusetts.

CENTENNIAL POSTERS

The story of the kindergarten centennial in pictures was a feature of the San Antonio convention. The Art Department of Teachers College, Columbia University, Charles J. Martin, Director, prepared the fifteen picture mural. Winifred Bain and Patty Smith Hill supplied the historical outline and acted as advisors. The pictures will be displayed at the conventions of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, in Richmond, Virginia; the National Education

Association, in Detroit, Michigan; and the American Legion, in New York City. Arrangements for exhibition at local celebrations can be made through the Association for Childhood Education.

THE FROEBEL SEAL

The kindergarten centennial seal was designed and financed by the New England A.C.E. Committee, Sarah A. Marble, Chairman. Used on letters and for decorating programs, it serves as a reminder to all who see it that American education owes a great debt to Friedrich Froebel and his courageous philosophy of education. Cellophane packages of one hundred seals (price 50¢) may be secured from the Association for Childhood Education. A sample will be sent upon receipt of a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

NEW A.C.E. BRANCHES

Since our report in the April *Childhood Education*, two groups have affiliated with the National Association for Childhood Education, bringing the total of new Branches for the year to fifty-four.

Charlotte Association for Childhood Education, North Carolina.

Reinstated: Salina Association for Childhood Education, Kansas.

SUMMER SESSION

Summer courses of special interest to educators will be offered this year by the Department of Child Development, Mills College, California. Stevenson Smith, University of Washington, and Ernest R. Hilgard, Stanford University, will be visiting lecturers. Particular needs of nursery school teachers will be met by courses in theory and practice, given by Martha Thrum, Child Development Foundation, New York City, and in the social work approach in community life, given by Lovisa Wagoner, Mills College. The session will begin June 28 and end August 7.

NEW BROCHURE

"Happier Days for Your Child, A Service Letter for Friends of Young Children, Commemorating a Century of the Kindergarten," is

the title of a new publication prepared under the direction of Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education. Copies will be sent upon request, from the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

W.F.E.A. MEETS IN TOKYO

The meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations, in Tokyo, August 2-7, has for one of its main objectives the promotion of goodwill and understanding between the teachers of all nations. That American Teachers are deeply interested in problems confronting educators everywhere is evidenced by the many inquiries for information about the conference. For details write to the World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

NURSERY SCHOOL BULLETINS

The National Advisory Committee on WPA Nursery Schools has recently published two bulletins, No. 4, "Suggestions for Record Keeping in Nursery Schools" (price 50¢); and No. 5, "Nursery School Equipment" (price 25¢). Both publications may be secured by writing Grace Langdon, Specialist in Parent Education and Nursery Schools, 1340 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

NURSERY SCHOOL CONFERENCE

The National Federation of Day Nurseries held its twentieth biennial conference in New York City, April 8-10. The meeting was planned to aid all those interested in providing day care for children outside their own homes. An exhibit of toys, furniture, and publications was of interest to the delegates.

CITY OF LONDON VACATION COURSE

The City of London Vacation Course in Education will hold its sixteenth session from July 24 to August 7, in Bedford College, University of London. Lectures on English teaching methods, visits to places of historic interest and an inaugural banquet will be features of the course. For a full prospectus write to Hugh W. Ewing, Secretary, The City of London Vacation Course in Education, Montague House, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1, England.

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